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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 15, 1902.

The Week.

Further dispatches only magnify the horror of the destruction of Saint Pierre. Warning there had been for some time previous in the grumbling of the mountain, but when the fatal day came, the mountain wrought its work of devastation in minutes. The fall of incandescent sand and of burning gases was so sudden that even the ships in the harbor were burned at their moorings. Such a realization of the Biblical "fire from heaven" which passed over the cities of the plain and left a wilderness, is probably unexampled in secular history. The extent of the ruin and the number of the perished are still matters of sheerest conjecture. It is probable, however, that not less than 25,000 people, more than one-eighth of the total population, are buried at the foot of Mt. Pélée. Saint Pierre is the chief commercial city of the little island of Martinique, and its destruction will doubtless involve widespread suffering. A simultaneous volcanic disturbance in the neighboring island of St. Vincent reckons victims by thousands there also. The economic distress of these colonies was already extreme, and disaster by fire or flood fills the cup of their misfortune to overflowing. The world-wide sympathy which this unparalleled calamity everywhere arouses is actively expressing itself in practical beneficence.

Scientists, or at least the more discreet among them, naturally shrink from lifting their puny explanations and predictions in the face of such an earthshaking and incalculable disaster. What is a geologist that thou art mindful of him?-so the gigantic and unforeseen convulsions in the West Indies seem to ask in scorn. Yet one geologist at Washington comes forward to soothe apprehension about the Danish Islands, and to assure the public that no volcanic action can endanger that future possession of the United States. Possibly. though nature seems given to mocking expert knowledge; and we must not forget that St. Thomas has known a tidal wave almost as calamitous as an eruption. We can easily imagine that Denmark will be more ready to part with such uncertain property, now that she has seen French and English possessions in the Lesser Antilles ruined in a moment. The particular enterprise in which the appalling catastrophe should make the United States pause, is the building of an Isthmian canal. Nicaragua is right in the line of volcanic disturbance, and seems a peculiarly

risky spot for the investment of \$250,-000,000 in a canal wholly dependent upon an inland lake which a single earth-quake might drain dry. Even at Panama the danger from volcanic shock, though much less than at Nicaragua, undoubtedly exists. There, however, a sea-level canal could be cut. Even that could be, of course, wrecked by any such shattering of the earth's crust as has overwhelmed St. Pierre; but a much less serious movement would be enough to destroy a canal at Nicaragua, with its six or eight locks.

Senator Spooner's promised speech on the Senate Philippine bill we await with interest. He intimated, the other day, that he thought the Lodge bill ought to be amended before being passed. Unless Mr. Spooner has decidedly changed his point of view since last year, the amendments he wou'd like to see made must relate to its exploiting features and aim to cut them out. In the Republican newspapers, none of which seems to know what is the actual text of the bill, it is referred to as a measure establishing a "civil government" in the archipelago. It really does nothing of the kind, but provides opportunities, as Senator Lodge confessed, for Americans to make money in the Philippines. But, by the so called Spooner amendment of last year, we undertook to make no money there at the expense of the natives. That mask, however, certain Senators now seem ready to drop. The "sacred-trust" theory is rapidly disappearing. Our Christian mission in the Philippines is, in fact, coming to look as unreal as were the pious professions attributed to the first settlement of Cape Ann, in the seventeenth century. A preacher from Massachusetts Bay went to preach to the Cape Ann fishermen, and exhorted them to "approve themselves a religious people," since "otherwise they would contradict the main end of planting this wilderness." Whereupon, as we read in Young's 'Chronicles,' there were intimations that this sort of talk was misdirected, being evidently meant for the Bay Colony; and "a well-known person then in the assembly cried out, 'Sir, you are mistaken. Our main end was to catch fish." A period of similar frankness seems to have arrived in our Philippine policy.

An appeal to clergymen of all denominations throughout the United States to protest against the conditions in the Philippines has been signed by the Rev. Dr. C. H. Parkhurst, the Rev. Dr. Henry A. Stimson, the Rev. Robert Collyer, and a number of other ministers of New York city. The appeal is accompanied

by liberal extracts from testimony taken before the Senate Committee on the Philippines regarding the cruel treatment of the natives by our troops, and closes with an urgent request that clergymen "inform themselves fully in regard to the position of the United States in the Philippine Islands, in order that they may advise the American people as to their duty in regard to this matter." It is accompanied by an interesting letter from the Rev. Joseph R. Duryee of Philadelphia, who declines to sign the protest because of his "sense of justice to the American troops"-but does not stop there, as the Imperialists would prefer, adding that "the tendency of this Senate inquiry is to make the army bear the blame of an immoral policy of subjugation begun four years ago." Mr. Duryee also contests the claim that "destiny" is on the side of those who are carrying out this immoral policy of subjugation. "If the Administration and Congress, representing a majority of our people," he says. "have not learned by this time that tropical possessions in the East are not the destiny of our people, they are blind to the facts of nature these four years of experience have taught."

Secretary Root's answer to the Senate resolution inquiring what military orders had been sanctioned by the War Department, assumes responsibility for the policy of concentration camps and of retaliation in the Philippines, but denies knowledge or approval of the ferocious order given by Gen. Smith to Major Waller. If he had not denied it, the President would have had to order the court-martial of Secretary Root as well as of Gen. Smith. Thus the slander of the Army and Navy Journal is disposed of which asserted that it was absurd for the President and the Secretary of War to "plead the baby act" in connection with Gen. Smith's order to burn and slay promiscuously, and which roundly affirmed:

"Gen. Smith's orders in the province of Samar and Gen. Bell's in the province of Batangas were submitted to Major-Gen. Chaffee. He approved them, and submitted copies of them to the War Department at Washington, where not a word was said against them or against the operations conducted in accordance with them until it was discovered that it had been necessary to use harsher means than syringes loaded with cologne water to put down the insurrection."

Mr. Root's letter to the Senate explicitly declares that "the Secretary of War has no knowledge of any order or orders issued by Brig.-Gen. Jacob H. Smith to Major L. W. T. Waller, United States Marine Corps, pleaded by the latter in defence before the recent court-martial which tried him at Manila. No such or-

der has been received at the War Department."

The Secretary takes refuge in the shadow of the mighty name of Lincoln on the subject of retaliation against a barbarous enemy. It would have been instructive, however, to state the fact that Lincoln refused to retaliate for the alleged massacre of colored troops at Fort Pillow, though strongly urged to do so by members of his Cabinet. For concentration camps, Mr. Root has, of course, to turn to Spanish authority. It was of Gen. Weyler that Gen. Bell learned that strategy. In forwarding the plan to Washington, Gen. Chaffee admitted that it was "impossible" for him to justify concentration "in such a way that all persons will agree that right action has been taken." We should think so. Chaffee had not forgotten, if the War Department had, that the reconcentración in Cuba was used to inflame this country against Spanish cruelty. course, Secretary Root is at pains to show that our concentration is a policy of the truest kindness; that the Filipinos whom we dragged from their homes were "well fed." So would the Cubans have been in Weyler's camp if he had had the money to do it. Spain was bankrupt. She could not pay and feed even her own troops, and there was inevitable suffering among the Cubans driven within the military lines. Because we are rich enough to give food to the Filipinos whom we drive within our military lines, we plume ourselves on our "humane" warfare! But tell it not in Spain, or we shall provoke even grim Gen. Weyler to mocking laughter.

There is a remarkable contrast between the statement regarding outrages upon Filipinos by our troops, which was sent to the Senate by Secretary Root on the 19th of February, and the list of officers and enlisted men in the army tried by court-martial for such offences which came from the War Department and which was laid before the Philippine Committee by Senator Lodge on May 6. The Secretary's communication of February 19 contained "a memorandum of forty-four officers, soldiers, and campfollowers, who have been tried, and thirty-nine of them convicted," for violation of orders calling attention to the general orders of war which especially refer to humanity. The list submitted last week contained the names of "over three hundred officers and enlisted men"-camp-followers now being left out of the account-who have been tried by court-martial on similar charges. The implication seems to be plain that there must have been a sudden and marked activity in the punishment of offences against the Filipinos in the last few weeks, since public sentiment in this country became aroused by the stories

of cruelty towards the natives on the part of our troops.

President Palma's wish to obtain a Cuban reciprocity treaty that will really aid Cuban trade, naturally grieves and depresses the beet-sugar Senators. They cannot understand such a mercenary attitude. "Why," says Senator Burrows, "the man thinks of nothing but money from the United States, cares nothing for friendliness, and apparently feels no gratitude." Why cannot Señor Palma take example from Mr. Burrows, who stands up for the beet purely as a friend, and out of gratitude, and with not one thought of cash profits? The Cuban President should have seen how his talk about enabling the Cubans to make monev was certain to convince Senators of the need of annexing Cuba. They are, in fact, gravely shaking their heads over the outlook, and saying that our troops will have to go back within six months. If there is any money to be made in the island, Americans will see to that, As Senator Lodge virtually said, the other day, in his speech which so nobly reflected the New England conscience, "It is Democratic policy not to allow an American to make money, but the Republican party will see to it that money is made, even if every pledge has to be broken."

"Death hath this also, that it openeth the gate to good fame and extinguisheth envy." Already is this comfort coming to the friends of the late Admiral Sampson. Falling as his death did after a marked abatement of the bitterness of the naval controversy in which he was an unwilling and pathetic participant, his passing from earth was in the midst of a general sentiment towards him more kindly than at any time for three years past; so that even those newspapers which have said the harshest things of him are now recording his high accomplishments as an officer and his sterling qualities as a man. His naval fame is secure. Contemporary foreign opinion usually expresses the verdict of posterity, and military writers of other nations have accorded Admiral Sampson a full measure of appreciation and praise. Even before the Spanish war he was widely and favorably known abroad for his attainments in the study of high explosives and of gunnery; and what was thought of his operations off Cuba, and especially of his skilful dispositions at Santiago, may be read, for example, in H. W. Wilson's naval history of 1898, 'The Downfall of Spain.' "Admiral Sampson," writes that author, "from first to last did his work in a manner that commands British admiration." The esteem in which he was held by the officers and men who served under him has been many times made manifest. Had it not been his ill luck to be ordered away by the Secretary of the

Navy to confer with Gen. Shafter, on the morning of that day when the Spanish fleet appeared from Santiago, only to disappear from history, he would have become the idol of the American people, and for more than the Dewey moment.

Doubt as to the fate in the Senate of the bill which has just passed the House providing for the admission of Oklahoma, Arizona, and New Mexico to statehood is based upon uncertainty as to the political complexion of the three Territories. It is not pleasant to think that the question of admission should hinge upon partisanship, but it has always been so, from the days when slave and free States were admitted in pairs, to the present time. There seems to be a prospect that the pending bill will fail, because Arizona is known to be Democratic, and New Mexico and Oklahoma are under suspicion. It will, of course, be no great calamity to the nation if this happens. If the question of partisanship were not dominating, attention might be drawn to the matter of fitness for statehood, and it is not at all certain that New Mexico and Arizona could pass muster. Oklahoma, on the other hand. has made so much progress during the thirteen years since her organization as a Territory, that, if she were applying alone, her case would seem a strong one. But she, too, can wait.

When Mr. Evans resigned as Commissioner of Pensions, he publicly stated that he was retiring because his continuance in office would be "embarrassing" to certain "statesmen." In private he never made any concealment of his willingness to remain, provided the President desired him to do so. Those are the facts, and nothing that Mr. Evans now says, in the generous wish to relieve Mr. Roosevelt from responsibility, is really inconsistent with them. He speaks at present of his long having wished to give up the office: of his having repeatedly offered his resignation, and of his having been urged to stay both by Mr. McKinley and by President. Roosevelt. Certainly, but why was he uneasy? Why did he find the honest administration of the Pension Bureau a source of continual vexation? Everybody knows. The politicians were clamoring for his head. They were accusing him of imperilling elections in Ohio and in various Congressional districts. They were besieging the President to remove him. By their continual coming they at last wearied Mr. Roosevelt into doing what President McKinley would not do. The latter said to the Commissioner, "As long as you are attacked solely for a fearless and impartial enforcement of the law, count upon my support, and stay where you are." President Roosevelt said: "Well, if you must go, I'll see that you get a better-paying office." That is the whole story. No attempt, at this late day, to break the force of its unpleasant implications can avail with those who know the truth.

Secretary Shaw is entitled to no little credit for the amended regulations in regard to the inspection of passengers' baggage at this and other ports promulgated on Thursday. Unlike Mr. Gage, this Secretary from a Western State was not content to sit down and say that under the existing law nothing could be done to ameliorate the barbarous conditions on the piers of the transatlantic liners. He listened carefully to the statements of all who took the trouble to complain, and found time, even when just familiarizing himself with the duties of his great office, to see for himself exactly how the inspection of personal baggage is conducted. As a result of his observation and study, we have the new rules, which are but the natural result of such an investigation, combined with some common sense. Decency alone dictates the provision that ladies desiring a private examination of their baggage shall be accorded the privilege, wherever possible. If the Treasury Department is able to show its inspectors that Secretary Shaw is not merely writing for effect, there should be an end to the many complaints as to the needless and unjustifiable injury to the contents of trunks. If all inspectors who take tips are to be dismissed, we fear very much that there will be a number of vacancies in the customs service, but Secretary Shaw's warning as to this offence is in the interest of honesty and efficiency.

Most important of all are the rulings that travellers shall not have to pay duty on small purchases, such as articles of adornment, etc., within the hundred-dollar limit, and the extension of the nonresident classification to include all who have been abroad for a year, with a fixed abode, for some specific object. Gratifying and enlightened as all these changes are to those who have unceasingly protested, as we have done, against the uncivilized character of the customs procedure, it must not be forgotten that the iniquitous law itself still remains on the statute-book. Until it is abrogated, this great country will still be in the unique position of harassing its own citizens and imposing restrictions upon foreign travel for the sake of a paltry and ridiculous income. No other country has ever adopted so undignified and unworthy a procedure, and all those who are concerned about the nation's reputation for breadth of view, common sense, and fair dealing with its own citizens, should join in the movement for the repeal of the \$100 exemption clause which was inserted in the Dingley law through the efforts of a few interested persons.

We are apparently on the verge of a great coal strike, with the public very much in the dark as to the nature and merits of the controversy between miners and operators. No detailed statement of the demands of the men has been made, though a "wage scale" adopted at Shamokin has been, it is asserted, presented to the operators. What offers, if any, the owners have proposed, outsiders have not the slightest idea. The announcement of the Mine Workers speaks of the desire for "higher wages, shorter hours, and better conditions of employment," but all without specification. It declares, also, that the operators have made no "tangible" concessions. But this, too, may mean much or little. So may the refusal of the employers to refer the dispute to arbitration. If the demands of the miners are within reason, then the companies will suffer from the suspicion which always rests nowadays upon that party to a labor controversy which declines to allow it to be arbitrated. On the other hand, if the pretensions of the Miners' Union amount to a practical summons to the operators to surrender the control of their own business, then we are at once face to face with a question as to which arbitration cannot be invoked. The general ignorance in respect to all these details makes it impossible, as the case now stands, to express an intelligent opinion of the rights and wrongs of the strike.

The decision to remove Andover Theological School to Cambridge means, of course, the practical extinction of an institution which has had nearly a hundred years of life, many of them influential and resounding, the more recent ones, however, a period of gradual and melancholy enfeeblement. Many causes have contributed to the slow decay of this once famous school of the prophets. The argument of locality had come to be against it, though even in Chicago the theological seminary of the Congregational Church has fallen on evil days, as respects the attendance of students. At Andover, the large endowments and fine equipment and able teaching have not availed to attract, in recent years, more than a handful of young men. In addition to the general falling off of interest in theological education, there have been, of course, especial reasons why Andover has declined. Torn by controversies, doctrinal and personal, long suspected by the more stiffly orthodox within the denomination, it has seen its usefulness disappear with its fame. Yet the quenching of that light on "Andover Hill" is an event of farreaching significance. Massachusetts and New England can hardly seem the same again to men of middle age. That there should be no "Andover theology," no successor to Moses Stuart and Leon-

ard Woods and Edwards A. Park—this will seem to them almost incredible. But inexorable time has brought even this about, "lest one good custom should corrupt the world."

If Lord Salisbury entertained any doubts and fears as to the outcome in South Africa, he would hardly have expressed them at the annual meeting of the Primrose League. The occasion was equally inauspicious for frank confession of past shortcomings. It is very likely, then, that a certain element of patriotic flummery in his address on May 7 was merely for the primrose gallery. But, unfortunately, these vivacities "between friends" are cabled to the ends of the earth, including South Africa, and what may have delighted the Primrose League may well enough grate on foreign susceptibilities. Certainly the declaration that the attitude of the Government towards the Boers remains unchanged is highly impolitic at the present juncture, and can only produce a deplorable impression. It is generally and, we believe, rightly supposed that the Ministry will give the commandos far better terms than were offered after the Bloemfontein-Pretoria campaign. If this be not the attitude of the Ministry. the present peace negotiations in South Africa are clearly farcical. In any event, it was no time to fall back on the old Jingo formulas.

The first political effect of the return to food taxes in England is the loss of a seat to the Government in a byeelection. A Conservative majority of 849 at Bury has been turned into a Liberal majority of 414. It was the corn tax that did it, all accounts agree, as nothing else was talked of in the canvass. Conservative agents, to be sure, tried to. raise again that charlatan cry of Chamberlain's, "A seat lost to the Government is a seat gained to the Boers," and the London Times, after the event, is solemnly expressing the fear that the Liberal success will so encourage the Boers that they will now refuse to make peace. With an obsession like this it is impossible to reason. Some day or other, Englishmen have got to be allowed to discuss measures of government without having the Boer bogey held up to them as to naughty children. The food tax seems to have been chosen as a good place to begin. It is an old saying in England that a Ministry can make the trice of bread what it pleases as long as there is a war. The trouble with Sir Michael's imposts on wheat and flour is that they come when the war is thought to be over. In the political overturn at Bury we see what blows are likely to be dealt the Government when once they cease to be able to identify themselves with the country, and to call for support as a patriotic duty.

THE REAL ENEMIES OF THE ARMY.

Gen. Grenville M. Dodge made an address before the Loyal Legion on Wednesday evening of last week, in protest against what he calls the unjustifiable assaults upon the army on account of the cruelties reported from the Philippines. His logic is not entirely clear to us. His position appears to be (1) that there have been no violations of the laws of war in the Philippines; (2) that, if there have been, they were under extreme provocation: (3) that, anyhow, they are no worse than acts of the soldiers on either side in our civil war; and (4) that court-martialling officers for the use of the "water-cure" torture is "a great wrong." If that reasoning seems a little obscure, so does Gen. Dodge's further inference that "this great hubbub about cruelties" is intended as an attack upon the veterans of the civil war. All this is too much for us, but we can see very clearly that throughout Gen. Dodge's address there runs an honest indignation at what he considers an attempt to "discredit the army." As to that we wish to say a word.

No doubt, the army, like every other human institution, suffers in reputation from the black sheep connected with it. This is inevitably the case when public attention chances to be fixed upon sensational details, given a momentary prominence in the press. Now we have always maintained that cruelty in the treatment of the Filipinos by our troops has been exceptional. Our officers are. as a rule, incapable of it; the rank and file is not made up of men who are naturally brutal. We wish to entertain ne illusion about the matter, one way or the other. An army that can do no wrong does not exist-not even in France, though there they sometimes seem to think they have got such an impossible thing. On the other hand, we know that our private soldiers are not, as the Duke of Wellington said the British army was, recruited from "the scum of the earth." With educated officers, jealous for their profession, and with men in the ranks who are now coming largely from the farm, we are confident that we have armed representatives in the field who, in ordinary circumstances and under the usual conditions of warfare, would do themselves and their country credit. They are not perfect. As an English officer said, not even the British regulars in South Africa have been irreproachable in conduct. Among the 40,000 men in the Philippines there are, of course, some rufflans, some ne'er-do-weels, some incompetent officers foisted into the service by politicians; and it is their misdeeds which have brought disgrace upon the army.

We do sincerely sympathize, however, with those soldiers of ours in the Philippines who bitterly complain of what they

consider unjust attacks upon them for the manner in which they carry out their orders. In this, we think, they are unanswerable. What they say is practically this: "You sent us over here. You ordered us to disperse the armed Filipinos, and we have done it. Then you tell us to crush out all opposition to our rule: to attack these people in their hamlets and fields; to march from end to end of the islands, and, wherever we find sullen disaffection or inextinguishable hatred, to strike at it; to unearth plots and punish secret treason; to make the Filipinos not merely surrender their arms, but submit their wills. Now, how can we do this without severity? How can we pursue a handful of men through swamp and jungle, with our brains on fire under this tropical heat, and be expected to observe all the nice proprieties of the tented field? give us a devil's work to do, and then complain if we do not behave like saints. We are but carrying out your instructions, and if they are bloody, the fault is yours, not ours."

There is, we maintain, a great deal of natural justice in this retort of the army. But let us see to just whom it should be addressed. Not to Anti-Imperialists. They did not order the subjugation of the Filipinos. They would not have had our men go to the ends of the earth to do repugnant work-for we know that many of our officers feel it in their very souls to be repulsive and abhorrent-under conditions which make the maintenance of discipline extremely difficult, if not impossible, and which directly tend to arouse and let spring every tiger-passion lurking in the heart of the enlisted men. No, it is the whole policy that is being enforced which is at fault, and which has brought the army set to execute it into disrepute. There is much force in the protests of the inculpated officers against the courts-martial ordered by President Roosevelt. Were they not doing the very work he commanded? Had he not given stringent orders to crush out the last semblance of insurrection? Had he not congratulated Gen. Bell on the success of his severe measures in Batangas? Then why not attribute the technical violations of the laws of war to an excess of zeal? This is not a military defence; but it is, we admit, something very like a moral defence-that is. as against those who condemn cruelty but persist in a cruel policy.

The real enemies of the American army are those who lay upon it a revolting task. It is upon the Government which orders troops to make a desolation and call it peace that the guilt of the incidental barbarities rests. And it is shared by the people behind the Government—the press and the churches and the universities—who do not protest against a mistaken policy, in the stupid clinging to which we have the real cause of all these woes. We

admit that the horrors were never intended by any party, any President. But we have, with the best intentions, stumbled into them. Mr. McKinley was smilingly certain, as Andrew Carnegie has just assured us, that the idea of our ever having to fight the Filipinos was preposterous—they would "welcome us as their best friends." Yet from that hour of first mistake until now, the progress in wrong and severity has been continuous and fated. Executive orders from Washington have changed our army of emancipators into men under orders to make a barren waste.

It is the policy, not the army, that is at fault. The real authors of the dishonor of the army are the men who send it on dishonoring campaigns. The skirts of those are clear who withstood the whole error from the beginning, and who make their own to-day the language of Burke. He had, in his day, to meet the assertion that the dignity of the British nation would not allow it to withdraw from a false position. "Every hour you continue on this ill-chosen ground," he exclaimed, "your difficulties thicken on you; and, therefore, my conclusion is, remove from a bad position as quickly as you can. The disgrace and the necessity of yielding, both of them, grow upon you every hour of your delay."

THE SHIPPING DEAL.

As there was reason to expect, with so complicated an international "deal," the terms of the Shipping Combination are in many respects both novel and extremely interesting. By no means the least significant part of the arrangement is the contract with British shipbuilders. It will be remembered that apprehension was expressed by the English newspapers, when the Shipping Trust was first announced, as to what would be its effect on England's shipbuilding industry. Would the contracts of such lines as the White Star and the Dominion go, at some future period, to American shipyards? Would American interests, having so rich a prize within their grasp, allow Europe indefinitely to retain any part of it? What such a transfer, on an extensive scale, would mean to British trade may be judged from the fact that, while the whole world's construction of merchant ships in 1901 is estimated at Lloyd's as 2,617,000 tons, the British yards alone turned out 1,524,000. That is to say, nearly 60 per cent. of the world's construction came from the hands of English builders and mechan-

The reported arrangements of the Ship Trust on this point can hardly, we should say, allay all misgivings among Englishmen. The "builders' agreement," as summarized by cable, guarantees to Harland & Wolff of Belfast all of the combination's orders for such new ships and heavy repairs as must be done in

British ship-yards. In return for this rather striking concession to a single building firm, the builders give the Trust a prior right to their facilities, agreeing to accept no outside contracts while the Trust is keeping their ship-yards busy. This will, however, strike the average observer as a rather one-sided understanding, especially as no formal agreement seems to have been made as to how much work Harland & Wolff shall be allowed. It is expressly stipulated that the agreement with these British builders shall not prevent the Trust from placing orders for new steamers and repairs at American ship-yards.

So far as the summary is any guide, the effect of the arrangement seems to be that the Ship Trust does not pledge itself to give to British builders any work beyond necessary repairs, but what it does give is to go to one firm only. On the exclusive contract there has been some angry criticism in the London papers. We shall await with no little curiosity the further comments of British builders and of the English press, which does not yet appear to us to have grasped the situation. It is, of course, well known that Harland & Wolff have hitherto done most of the work for the lines included in the sale as now announced. It is also true that, under present American law and practice, the Trust may choose to place its new vessels under British registry, and hence would go to British ship-yards. But if the Shipping Combination is looking to the distant future, with the progress of the American steel trade in efficiency and economy being what it is, then we should say that the building contract would provide some unpleasant matter for the reflection of Englishmen.

We have commented particularly on this phase of the announcement, not only because it is a new development, but because it seems to us fraught with important consequences. It is possible that, in some respects, later advices may throw further light on this part of the arrangement. As regards the purely financial side of the contract as reported, the essential fact developed is that very large sums of money had to be pledged to close the "deal." One-fourth of the price agreed on for the White Star purchase is to be paid in cash; in addition to which it is stated that \$27,-580,000 cash is to be paid over to the American, Atlantic Transport, Leyland, and Dominion vendors. This arrangement, though not unexpected, has this interest, that it marks one line of variation from the Steel incorporation. That operation was a merger, pure and simple, in which the shares of the companies absorbed were merely exchanged, at a determined ratio, for the shares of the main concern.

The cabled details also confirm the statements of the "bonus" to the underwriting syndicate, regarding which

London has hitherto shown so great incredulity. For its services in floating \$50,000,000 bonds, this syndicate is to receive \$2,500,000 in preferred and \$25,000,-000 common stock. The bonds are, however, supposed to have been already practically floated without the syndicate's intervention. We observe with some surprise that the \$60,000,000 preference stock is to bear cumulative dividends. Considering the recent turn of discussion in the Steel Corporation's financiering, this strikes us as a matter for criticism. It has been intimated, in many well-informed quarters, that one strong motive in the partial conversion of the Steel preferred stock is the wish to get rid of share issues whose accruing dividends, in a series of possible lean years, must, if not paid, heap up as contingent liabilities against the future. If the Steel Corporation is endeavoring to correct original mistakes by its present draft on the credit of the corporation, how are we to regard the appearance of the same provision in the capital of the Shipping

Mr. Carnegie's opinion that "there is no question of patriotism" in the Shipping Combine, and that it is "purely a matter of money-making," undoubtedly sums up the case correctly. If Mr. Morgan's move had really been inspired by a notion that concentrated American capital could snatch away Britain's control of the Atlantic, then, we should say, the willingness of the English shipowners to cooperate in the plan would need explanation. The truth is that these gentlemen, as Mr. Carnegie intimates, had a motive quite apart from national considerations. What the situation of the ocean freight trade was, last year, is pretty generally known. The 'Annual Shipping Review' of Mr. John White of London, an authority in the trade, lately remarked of 1901 that, beginning with a decline of 30 per cent, in coal freights, the entire list of ocean rates had fallen throughout the year. Several American liners and some cargo boats were put out of commission; scores of vessels made half of the transatlantic trip virtually in ballast. The recent cut in the Cunard Company's yearly dividend from 8 to 4 per cent., and of the German Lloyd's from 81/2 to 6, showed how the shoe was pinching. The review from which we have quoted advanced on its own account, last January, the suggestion that "a little of the spirit of combination" already applied in other industries might be extended with advantage to the ship-owners. By the same authority was made the rather startling estimate that 2,000,000 tons of shipping, or as much as the whole steam tonnage of Germany, is now engaged exclusively in ocean transport service for the Boer campaign. The war ended and the troops brought home, all these ships, of course, reënter the competitive merchant ser-

All this shows very plainly why the owners of English lines were willing and possibly anxious to sell to Mr. Morgan's syndicate, when they received an inviting offer. But it does not seem to us that it throws much light on the future. Clearly, the difficulty of the trade has been overproduction of ships. Vessels newly constructed in 1901, in the face of diminishing profits, were estimated by Lloyd's Register at 2,617,000 tons, an increase of 1,200,000 tons over even 1897, and of 300,000 over even 1899. These figures cover the whole world's production; England's output alone was 1.524.000 tons last year, as against only 952,000 in 1897. In view of such comparisons, and with the African transport tonnage overhanging the market, it would ordinarily be supposed that the first act of the "Combine" would be to stop all new construction. But it cannot stop construction for outside owners; in fact, the very checking of orders from the White Star, American, and Cunard Lines would be apt to make building cheaper for competitors. The same perplexity will exist with regard to rates. As the London Economist remarks, the combination, with its enormous burden of capital, must work to raise ratner than lower ocean freight rates. But if it raises them arbitrarily, it opens precisely so much further the inducement to competitors. And there is no acquired "right of way" on the Atlantic. The problem is obviously new in several of its aspects.

HIGHER EDUCATION FOR THE NEGRO.

The recent meeting of the Southern Educational Conference at Athens, Ga., has given rise to much valuable discussion of the various phases of education in the South. If the Conference, as was to have been expected, had no new theories to advance. It has none the less rendered extremely valuable service in more ways than one, and particularly in laying stress upon the necessities of the public schools, white and black. Perhaps the most important of these needs is that of good teachers. The General Education Board recognized this by giving \$19,500 to the State Normal and Industrial School for whites at Athens, which is, beyond all else, a teachers' fitting school, and the Board may be counted upon to assist similar institutions for the development of colored teachers. The mere prospect of similar gifts has served to revive the old discussion as to the value of the various kinds of institutions which are now training the colored youth of the South, and particularly the teachers of the future.

As to the worth of Hampton and Tuskegee there can be no doubt. The great opportunity of the negroes of the South lies in the tilling of the land. Upon this all are agreed who have gone

beneath the surface of the South's greatest problem. Tuskegee is expending its strength, above all else, upon the agricultural side of its curriculum, and next upon those industries which are most closely related to farm and rural life. Conversation with its students will show, we believe, that the majority have no other teaching in view than that given by every man or woman who leads an honest and industrious life. That many finally become teachers by profession does not detract from the fact that Tuskegee's primary aim is the development of men and women who can earn a good living in manual pursuits. Hampton, on the other hand, keeps always in view the training of teachers. Its course stops about two years short of the average Northern high school, and nearly one-third of the time is given to manual work or domestic training. Latin, French, and German are not included in the studies offered by the institution. Like Tuskegee, it turns out carpenters, blacksmiths, masons, engineers, and mechanics. When graduated, its scholars are prepared either to become useful industrial workers or very satisfactory teachers of the ordinary colored schools of the

With Atlanta, Howard, Fisk, and other universities the case is different. These institutions aim to supply an education such as is to be obtained at the wellknown colleges of the North. Fisk, for instance, has its theological school, profits by a neighboring, if independent, medical school, and gives its pupils something of Latin and Greek, German, French, and Hebrew, the sciences, political economy, ethics, logic, psychology, music, the higher mathematics, etc. For offering such a course, it and similar institutions are frequently severely criticised, both North and South. Their case is further complicated by the fact that their teaching methods have not always been beyond criticism. Furthermore, there exist a number of so-called colleges, frequently of a denominational nature, which confer annually a large number of degrees that are wholly without value, and therefore misleading. The successful bachelors of arts from some of these institutions would have to study at least three years in order to pass the Harvard or Yale entrance examinations.

Overlooking the educational shortcomings of the bona-fide colleges, and making every allowance for the crying need of the hour—industrial training—it would seem as if there were to-day a genuine place in the South for two or three institutions for the higher education of the negro. No one can deny that the colored race is producing more and more men and women capable of being highly trained and of using well their learning. From the graduates of Fisk and its fellow institutions are drawn each year

teachers and leaders. Tuskegee itself is indebted to the so-called colored universities for a considerable percentage of its instructors. Of Fisk's 371 living graduates, 8 are college professors, 75 are teachers in normal schools, and 154 teachers or principals of grammar schools. Of the others, 13 are in business, 20 are ministers, 9 lawyers, 17 doctors, 16 students in professional schools, and 9 are in the employ of the Government. Of the remainder only a few are unaccounted for, or are classified under the heading "living at home"—a creditable enough record.

Upon this question President Eliot's opinion is of as much value as it is on everything pertaining to education, and he has expressed his views in no uncertain language. In a speech at Boston in 1896 he declared that

"If any expect that the negro teachers of the South can be adequately educated in primary schools or grammar schools or industrial schools, pure and simple, I can only say in reply that that is more than we can do at the North with the white race. The only way to have good primary schools and grammar schools in Massachusetts is to have high and normal schools and colleges, in which the higher teachers are trained. It must be so throughout the South; the negro race needs absolutely these higher facilities of education."

But the function of the colored college is not merely to influence those who actually enter its doors. As is the case with our Northern colleges, it exerts an uplifting influence upon the community in which it is situated, and this influence is not to be measured by the actual achievements of institutions as yet in the early stages of their development. Nor would the establishment of travelling scholarships entitling the holders to study at Harvard or Yale or other institutions of the North and West meet the needs of the situation. As is the case in our Northern white communities, and, in fact, the world over, a school for the teaching of the highest branches of human learning is the inseparable adjunct, as it is the apex, of any proper educational system. Who can measure the influence of Harvard and Yale upon the schools of all grades in the territory surrounding them?

Since the need for negro colleges would thus appear to be patent, the friends of colored education and the educated negroes themselves should bestir themselves to the end that in place of the many half-baked institutions two or three of sound growth may stand forth as the proper fitting schools for the men and women of promise. A college that is not even a proper preparatory school, like the high school which masquerades as a university, does inestimable injury to the cause of negro education. So, too, the long-established college which fails to use all its valuable apparatus or to employ its teaching force for the best purposes, and which lacks the true college spirit and ideals, causes many a good friend of negro education to forget that industrial training is not the only need of the hour.

THE FRENCH REPUBLIC STRENGTHENED.

The second balloting in the French arrondissements, which took place on Sunday, resulted, as was anticipated, in further gains for the Government. The two weeks' interval between the elections and the reballoting is the occasion for the application of all the political arts, and naturally the Ministry has the advantage of the bargaining. Accordingly, it is no surprise to hear that the Government has carried 128 out of the 168 districts for which returns have come in. Until the complete analysis of the voting is received, it is impossible to estimate the real strength of the composite majority which M. Waldeck-Rousseau brings back to the Palais Bourbon. This much is certain, that he has increased his normal majority of about eighty to considerably more than one hundred.

This means, first, that the Nationalists have not been able to persuade the country that M. Waldeck-Rousseau is the enemy of the army, and so of France; and, second, that the doctrinaire Progressists, who follow M. Méline, have failed to alarm the average voter on the subject of the Socialist alliance. From two very bitter attacks the Government issues unscathed. Regarded exclusively from the parliamentary point of view, the voting means that the support of the Socialists-whether "reds" or "yellows"-is no longer indispensable to the life of the Ministry. though it is hardly likely that the Premier will turn from the allies who have made his great success possible.

Persistent rumors that M. Waldeck-Rousseau will resign, and turn over the honors of the victory to another, fortunately lack confirmation. France could ill afford to lose her greatest Premier since Gambetta. In a most stormy period he has consistently exemplified a kind of high opportunism, the command of which is the supreme test of statesmanship. He found the country irritated to the last degree by imagined attacks upon the army, and the army in the hands of scoundrels of the Mercier type, whom no one dared dis place. His appointment of Gallifet, the hero of the forlorn hope at Sedan, as War Minister silenced criticism and made the purging of the general staft seem the most natural thing in the world. Similarly, when he found that the Socialist alliance was a political necessity, he frankly accepted its conditions, and chose M. Millerand to be his Minister of Commerce-a Socialist, to be sure, but a man so moderate, so sagaclous, so regardful of the conditions of great reforms, that his most sincere opponents have had little to criticise in

his conduct in office. Again, M. Delcassé in the Foreign Office displayed a decision and dash, both in the Turkish affair and in the rapprochement with Italy, which gave the lie to those who declared the Ministry was unpatriotic: while M. Paul Deschanel brought to the Presidency of the Chamber rare qualities of eloquence, and did much to raise debate above the level of routine or stark abuse to that of genuine political oratory. To sum up, M. Waldeck-Rousseau has trusted less to theoretical political consistency, or to ingenious compromise, than to the integrity and ability of the men of many minds who make up his Cabinet. This has given to his Administration a personal stamp and distinction which recalls the early days of the present republic-the Thierses, Ferrys, and Gambettas. Whether a successor could organize and control such a Cabinet is very doubtful, and this leads to the sincerest hope that M. Waldeck-Rousseau will remain and enjoy the fruits of the victory which he has so handsomely won.

Of course, the great political achievement of his administration was the taming of the Socialists. He found them a revolutionary party, but, through M. Millerand's teaching and example, soon detached from them a parliamentary group; and now, if the incomplete returns may be trusted, these moderate Socialists are going over to the historic Radical party. This tends to avert a social peril which the great strikes of the past year have emphasized, and certainly gives the remaining Socialists an undiminished hope of concrete legislative reform.

Historically, the Waldeck-Rousseau Government will be remembered as that which saw the complete downfall of the various monarchical and anti-Republican factions. A very short time ago the Legitimists, Orleanists, and Bonapartists at least had the prestige that attaches to aristocratic movements, and something of the glamour which invests impossible lovalties. To-day all that fading glory has for ever departed. The Monarchists of all degrees have let themselves be drawn in with a ruck of those who merely hate the Jew, or look for a vague man on horseback, or detest the established order because it is the established order. This crazy mixture of the Faubourgs Saint-Germain, Montmartre, and Saint-Antoine was essentially Parisian. The sober good sense of the provinces has rejected it absolutely, and the Nationalists in Paris itself, where they still have a large majority, only await for their political dissolution the hour, not long to be deferred, when they shall appear ridiculous to all men.

It would be a far easier task for a new Premier to rule France than it has been for M. Waldeck-Rousseau, but it is to be hoped that he will profit by the era of good feeling which he has brought

out of the bitterness of the affaire. The opposition parties, so the Paris correspondent of the London Times relates, are so satisfied with the minor successes of a variegated campaign as almost to forget their beating. This is a rare condition in French politics, a condition which no one else is so likely to perpetuate as M. Waldeck-Rousseau. France needs him, for he has the knack of seeing beyond expediencies to policies, having what Talleyrand regarded as the final accomplishment of a statesman—a sense for the future—L'avenir dans l'esprit.

GIOSUÈ CARDUCCI.

FLORENCE, April 16, 1902.

The most precious New Year's gift received in January was the one-volume edition of the poetry of Glosue Carducci. printed and issued by his usual publisher, Zanichelli of Bologna, after careful revision of every page by the poet himself. Though long practice has rendered it easy to find each favorite poem scattered through the numerous editions that have appeared, from the tiny volume of 1857 to the last of the series of Complete Works, published between 1880 and 1902, it is a thing of untold delight, and will remain a "joy for ever," to have all the poems together in a light and elegant volume arranged in chronological order from 1850 to 1900, with an alphabetical list of titles, and the notes at the end of each series.

The poems are divided into four series, as they were published in the latest of the former editions. In the very earliest, the Juvenilia comprised only those written between 1850-57, when Giosuè, from his fifteenth to his twenty-first year, was, as he tells us, the 'armor-bearer of the classics," when he sought in Horace and Virgil the secret of Italy's grandeur, and hoped from their teachings to reawaken her to desire at least her moral and literary regeneration. Later he added to this "juvenile collection" all the patriotic poems inspired by the joy of feeling Italy in action; and recognized in her heroes. Victor Emanuel, Garibaldi, and the rank and file of their followers, worthy descendants of the martyrs and heroes of antiquity. 1860 closes this period with the "Ode to Sicily and the Revolution." Here at the end are the four lines in which he then, as he thought, bade adieu to poetry:

> "Io di poveri fior ghirianda sono, Ed Enotrio a le dee m'appese in dono; Qui l'arte deponendo e il van desio, Altri chieda la gloria, ed io l'obilo."

After the liberation of Naples and the close of the revolutionary era, the Kingdom of Italy appeared to him the "kingdom of ugliness, the glorification of mediocrity." He still tried to guide his "ideality along the Via Sacra. But it was useless. The poor beast went lame, brayed and kicked and tried to bite, went zigzag-getting scratched in the hedges-to feed on thistles," so he "left it to its caprices and the wiser beasts to their triumphs," and withdrew to the solitude of his own thoughts, resolved to lay aside all poetical ambition and to devote all the energies of his intellect to literary history and philology. "It would have been better," he says,

"if I had kept to my resolution and left poetry alone." But his studies brought to light a fact which at once surprised and consoled him. He found that his own repugnance to the literary and philosophical reaction of 1815 (against "classicism, the old pagan libertine," which Manzoni was supposed to have demolished), really harmonized with that of many illustrious thinkers and writers. "Thus my first instinctive sentiment of opposition became a confirmed belief, conception, reason, affirmation. The hymn to Phoebus Apollo became the hymn to Satan." He did not seek poetry, but let poetry come to him—

"Il mio canto miglior sempre è quel desse Qual non fece mai";

and his best song is ever the unwritten one. So "Levia Gravia" (1861-1871) came from his mind matured in understanding and sentiment." These poems are divided into four books, the first and third containing each twenty-five sonnets; the second and fourth each twelve, besides lyrical compositions on various subjects. As a preface, the poet addresses his muse in a poetical epistle. "In these times, when art has become cyclopic, who will give you-nurtured on the crumbs of Horacean asylum? This is not weather to go a-gadding in. Ill luck will befall you; follow my advice-Go back home; avoid contests." And here he tells his book the names of all the enemies awaiting it, because the "loves it treats of are those of other days, which do not sanctify lust; do not deck Venus with a rosary; nor commit adultery while preaching sermons." Then we have portraits, drawn from nature, of Tuscans and Italians of the period, the Naldos and Poldinos, renegades in politics and religion, "who exchange the red cap of liberty for one fashioned on the model set by the prefect."

Critics there arose, stupid and sapient, honest and ervious, but all competent judges in Italy repeated, "Unto us a poet is "Juvenilia" occupies 265 pages, born." "Levia Gravia" 100. "Satan" stands apart in his glory. Then come the "Giambi ed Epodi," in which some of the poems written between 1867 and 1871 are inserted. prologue is sad, but not morbid, and the poet keeps his promise to flagellate all the false idols that the world adores. form is classic, but how modern the subject-matter! The odes to Edward Corazzini, who died of wounds received at Mentana, "To Bologna, on the 20th anniversary of the famous defence of August 8, 1848," to Giuseppe Monti and Gaetano Tognetti, did more to hasten the popular clamor for the destruction of the temporal power than any agent save the fact of Mentana itself and the brutal orgies of French and Papal assassins. Terrible the satire of "The Song of Italy going to the Capitol." The sonnet to Mazzini is a statue in bronze. The lines written when Mazzini dies are bitter with the bitterness of the mourner who believes that "death only is eternal," with no hope of after life. These "Giambi ed Epodi" run from 1867 to 1879. An intermezzo divides these from the "Rime Nuove," among which are some of the most perfect of the sonnets, for example, "Ora e sempre," "The Ode to Victor Hugo," and the immortal "Ça ira." Then come the first and second books of the "Odi Barbare," of which it would be a profanation to speak in haste. A few translations come next, then "Rime o

Ritmi," at the end of which is the "Congedo," not written, as the reviewers seem to think, last December, when such an adieu would have had a sad significance, but published in 1898, when the poet's health was robust, and only a passing melancholy could then have dictated the sadly sweet Rispetti;

"Fior tricolore,
Tramontano le stelle in mezzo al mare,
E si spengono i canti entro il mio cuore!"

The book closes with the "Parliament," part first of the "Canzone di Legnano," commenced in 1879, and left unfinished still. Three hundred and sixty-five poems in all; yet they reflect half a century of artistic, poetical, literary, political, and social life, lived through and watched and portrayed by one of the noblest, most gifted patriots of the age that moulded into fact the dream of ages, a poet and a teacher who has ever sought "beneath the strata overlaid by time" for the good, the true, the beautiful, the real.

This volume of poetry is not the only gift from the Master in 1902. After four years' interruption the eleventh volume of the Complete Works (which are to consist of twenty) has arrived. It contains the third and last collection of "Ceneri e Faville." which the author calls poor trash (misere bucchiche), a title that few will confirm. The first of these "Ashes and Sparks," published in 1891, contains some interesting reviews written to order for the Nation, the arch-moderate newspaper of Florence in and after 1861. The second collection contains the fugitive prose pieces scattered between 1871 and 1876, and commences with the exquisite commemoration of the volunteers of the Vosges, "A Year after the Three Days of Dijon." In this newest and third collection, there are counsels and sentences worthy to be taken to heart by the youth of Italy to-day. Carducci's speech in the Senate on Candia and Greece is perhaps the gem of the eleventh volume, which is to be followed at once by the twelfth, more "Battles and Confessions," and the thirteenth, on Parini.

For the last three years, notwithstanding his arduous duties as Professor of Literature in the Woman's College of Florence, where examinations are held and diplomas are conferred. Carducci's beloved disciple and devoted friend Severino Ferrari, going to and fro between that city and Bologna, assisted his master regularly in the University lectures, the whole of which are often too much for his strength. "If I could have Severino and insure the unity and security of my library and manuscripts," he said to an intimate friend last year, "no other worldly concerns would worry me." The first desire was gratified by Professor Nasi, the present Minister of Public Instruction, who appointed Ferrari Professor of Style in the University of Bologna, where he will still continue to help his master with his literary classes. And as soon as the dowager Queen Margaret heard of his anxiety about the valuable library which, with much tribulation, especially in his boyhood and youth, Carducci has collected, she came forward at once offering to purchase it, leaving it for the poet's use during his lifetime, then to the city of Bologna, which we trust may long await the heritage. Queen Margaret, the most cultured woman in Europe now that Vic-

toria, Empress of Germany, is no more, gracefully performed the act she was fitted and worthy to conceive. She is now the proud possessor of that magnificent library—of the Foscolo which the poet carried to his mother, mounting the stairs on his knees; of his first copies of Horace, Virgil, Dante, Petrarch, Alfieri, and the Berchet which he learned by heart at that mother's knee; of all the books that have nurtured the poet, the prose writer, the Master of Italian youth beloved; of his university lectures, his manuscripts, many yet unpublished.

The contract was signed yesterday in the bright, spacious studio looking across the plains to the Bologna hills where, with his books, the poet chiefly dwells, save when he escapes to drink in a breath of Tuscan air and alights in Florence, as he did last Easter Monday, delighting our hearts. which tremble between the last vision and the next one hoped for. Count Malvezzi for Queen Margaret, Count Dall' Olio, the Mayor of Bologna, for Carducci, the notary and the faithful Zanichelli for chief witness. gathered there. The partner of his joys and sorrows, Elvira, the mother of his dead Dante, was present, as he chose she should be, and with her the widow "Bice" and her four children, for whose fatherless sake the grandfather could not give his one chief possession to the city which he loves. One of these, the second Elvira, will next year go in for the degree with honors at the University. "Laura," too, was there, with her one girl and boy, Giosuè. And in their presence the poet signed the contract ceding to the dowager Queen the whole of his literary possessions (save, of course, the copyright of his works) for 40,000 lire, the sum already deposited insuring 2,000 lire per annum during his lifetime. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

A CHANCE FOR "EQUITY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Why is "Equity" silent? Is not the time opportune for another comparison of the barbarous system of the British in warfare with the humane methods of Americans?

He might well contrast the savage ferocity of Lord Kitchener, as shown by his inhuman instructions to demolish the tomb of the Mahdi, with the beneficent order issued by Gen. Smith to mercifully dispose of all the inhabitants of Samar who are too old to learn American principles of justice and humanity. Or he might compare the "horrors" of the South African refugee camps, as disclosed by Miss Hobhouse, where, by the guilty negligence of English officers, female donkeys destined to afford sustenance to Boer babies were allowed to stray away and the unfortunate infants compelled to drag out a miserable existence on common cow's milk, with the Batangas method, by which one-third of the population are provided for so effectually as no longer to need milk of any kind, and the rest plentifully provided with water.

He should by no means neglect the opportunity.—Respectfully,

ARTHUR JOHNSTON.

SANTA ANA, CAL., May 3, 1902.

A FRIENDLY MONITOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should be greatly obliged if any of your readers could tell me where I might gain access to a pamphlet entitled 'A Friendly Monitor,' published in Philadelphia in December, 1819, and republished in September, 1822. It was written presumably by William Jones, President of the Second Bank of the United States. I am trying to write a history of that institution, and should like to use this pamphlet in that connection, but have been unable to find it.—Yours truly,

RALPH C. H. CATTERALL.

University of Chicago, May 3, 1902.

BREWSTER AUTOGRAPH IN WISCON-SIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Interest in autographs is of decidedly modern growth. The word "autograph" in the sense of signature has been detected in English by the multitudinous readers for the Oxford Dictionary in no author earlier than the elder Disraeli. Thus the specific use of the vocable began less than a decade before the year 1800. When regard for the Pilgrims took an autographic turn, the signature of William Brewster was at once brought to light on a deed in the Record Office at Plymouth. There was, however, unexpected difficulty in unearthing a duplicate, so that, after much search and research, the writing in the Old Colony archives came to be considered the unique autograph of Elder William Brewster, whose house was the first cradle of the first church of the Pilgrims (Bradford, p. 490).

Notwithstanding, about 1857 some one in Yale College Library, opening Cartwright's 'Harmonia Evangelica,' which had long slept soundly there in its own sheets, read on the title-page Will'm Brewster, and on the left of the name the phrase, Hebel est omnis Adam, which, though the late Mr. Justin Winsor did not know it, is found word for word in the fifth verse of the Thirty-ninth Psalm. The phrase is considered by Gesenius an independent clause, and translated "A breath is every man." More literally, "All man all breath."

A third autograph with the same motto was soon afterward exhumed at the Boston Athenæum in a Greek folio of Chrysostom (Basle, 1522). This book is further inscribed "Ex bibliotheca avi mei, July 1644. Thomas Prince [a son of Brewster's daughter]." A fourth autograph next rewarded the Rev. Dr. Dexter, who ferreted out Will'm Brewster, but not the Latinized motto, in a "Treatise on the Ministery [sic] of the Church of England, 1595 [no mention of place], by Francis Johnson, Pastor of the English Church in Amsterdam.' This book seems to have been bought before the Elder had adopted his book motto.

This quartet was supposed by Winsor, in his 'Narrative and Critical History' (vol. iii, p. 287), published in the middle of the eighties, to include all autographs extant. Yet two more Brewster signs manual were in reserve for him. One autograph with motto had been long lurking close by him in a neighbor's house at

Cambridge. The name and motto gave him a glad surprise in 1887. They were written in the commentary of 'Paraeus in Genesin Mosis, Frankfurt, 1615.' The other it was his fortune to read, both name and motto, on a folio translation of 'Seneca's Morals' by Thomas Lodge (London, 1614), owned by Mr. McClellan in Woodstock, Conn.

These six were the only Brewster autographs described by Mr. Winsor in his monograph of 1887 in the Massachusetts Historical Society's Proceedings. So far as can be ascertained, they formed the total of discovery after a century of search, until a seventh appeared in April, 1902, some fifteen years after the last windfall.

Miss Elizabeth Goffe Ticknor, now a student in the University of Wisconsin, then brought to her professor of history, Frederick J. Turner, an old book, which had long been an heirloom in her home, which is with her mother and grandmother in Madison. Her volume is a relic of the selfsame Francis Johnson who wrote the work, the delight of Dr. Dexter's old age, discovered by himself, as before stated, with the fourth-found Brewster autograph-and the first one that had not been entombed in a public institution. This Wisconsin treasure-trove shows on its title-page Will'm Brewster and Hebel est omnis Adam with not one letter in either of them obscured. The book itself, however, with no covers, the last four leaves in tatters, and all pages after 320 wanting altogether, recalls Shakspere's unregarded age in corners thrown. The gist of the title-page, where the words are 220, is as follows: 'A Christian Plea,' in capitals. By way of subtitle, its three treatises are: (1) "Touching Anabaptists," etc., pp. 1-210; (2) "Touching Arminians," etc., pp. 210-244; (3) "Touching the Reformed church with whom myself agree," etc., pp. 244-320+. "Made by Francis Johnson, Pastour of the ancient English church now sojourning at Amsterdam in the Low Countries." The next line shows six golden words which glorify the whole volume, "Hebel est omnis Adam, Will'm Brewster. Printed In the yeere of our Lord 1617 [no indication of

Here was the first discovery of the desiderated name in a second book by the same author. A copy of this work stands in the British Museum, marked in the catalogue Brownist, 696, b23, 1. His earliest publication is dated as 1600 in Allibone, but his book in Dr. Dexter's library bears the date 1595. He was in Middleburg 1593-99.

The chain of title to several of the Brewster volumes with his autograph is quite complete. No such evidence of either genuineness or authenticity is needed in respect to the present seventh autographnor can it be furnished. Still, the antecedents of the new-found rarity, so far as known, deserve record. Mrs. Olive Ticknor, residing in Madison, was the legal owner of the volume containing the seventh autograph until April 15, 1902, when she allowed it to be stamped "State Historical Society of Wisconsin, No. 117, 590." Born in 1819, her maiden name was Olive Kendall. Her father, Thomas Kendall (born 1786, died 1831), was the son of the Rev. Thomas Kendall, who was born in 1745, in Hopkinton, Mass., died 1836 (Daniells's 'Oxford,' p. 564). Mrs. Ticknor, wno was seventeen years old at her grandfather's to bring out, is complementary to Dean

death and living in the same house with him, believes the volume to have been then long in his possession. Further genealogical research may shed light on the steps of its transmission, after many a halt and hazard, to a permanent home, where dangers of loss or perishing are reduced to a minimum. Three of the six autographs before known-those at Yale, Plymouth, and the Boston Athenæum-may be equally secure, but the other three, so long as they remain in private hands, cannot be. Four of the six were found in Massachusetts, two in Connecticut. It will for ever be a joy to Wisconsin that in her capital was found the first Brewster autograph outside of New England. J. D. B.

Madison, Wis., April 21, 1902.

GERMAN ATTENTION TO AMERICAN UNIVERSITY WORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The managers of the Deutsche Litteraturzeitung, recognizing the ever-increasing value of the work of American universities, are desirous of keeping their German readers informed as to this work. With that object in view, they now make a request that news of the universities and notices of important publications be sent to them. In order to spare trouble to those thus favoring them, they have arranged with the undersigned to attend to the forwarding of all such notes and reviews. Any one wishing to publish a review of a book in the Litteraturzeitung will kindly communicate with the undersigned. Any one desiring a book reviewed by the management of the journal will please mail it directly to the editor-in-chief, Prof. Dr. T. Hinneberg, Berlin W. 64, Behrenstrasse 5,

It is hoped that this new departure, in addition to proving of unquestioned interest to Germans, may serve to introduce the work of Americans to a wider and more appreciative circle of readers than, perhaps, has been enjoyed heretofore.

ALBERT HAAS.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, BRYN MAWR, PA.

Notes.

The widow of the late E. J. W. Gibb, author, as our readers are aware, of a notable 'History of Ottoman Poetry,' has gathered together a number of his pieces under the title of 'Verses and Translations,' and they will be published for private circulation by Frederick W. Wilson & Co., No. 57 Hope Street, Glasgow, Scotland. The translations are from the French, German, and Turkish.

From Doubleday, Page & Co. are forthcoming a posthumous work of Sidney Lanier's, 'Shakspere and his Forerunners: Studies in Elizabethan Poetry and its Development from Early English'; 'Spiritual Heroes,' by David Saville Muzzey; "The Rebuilding of Old Commonwealths,' by Walter H. Page; 'Among the Water-Fowl,' by Herbert K. Job; and 'American Food and Game Fishes,' by David Starr Jordan and Barton W. Evermann.

'The Roll-Call of Westminster Abbey,' by Mrs. A. Murray Smith, daughter of the Dean of Westminster, which Macmillan is Stanley's well-known monograph on that building.

Henry Holt & Co. will issue at once 'General Principles of Physical Science,' by Prof. Arthur A. Noyes of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

The Nassau Press, New York, announces for speedy publication "Selling the Bear's Hide," and Other Tales,' by Charles Stewart Davison, and 'Gamelands of Maine,' by George N. Van Dyke.

John Lane will publish immediately 'Persian Children of the Royal Family: Being the Narrative of an English Tutor at the Court of H. I. H. Zillú's-Sultán,' by Wilfrid Sparroy.

A veteran among reprints is Siborne's 'Waterloo Campaign,' which dates from 1844 and is now brought out anew in a fifth edition (E. P. Dutton & Co.). The fourth edition was considerably abridged by Mr. Edward Arber in respect to the appendix and the notes, and apparently the present is a simple reissue of the fourth. The omissions will not detract from the interest of the narrative for the general reader, and Captain Siborne's old-fashioned rhetoric will perhaps heighten the enjoyment. All his prefaces are preserved. The maps are brought within the compass of a page. There are portraits of the chief actors in the campaign; but alas, there is no index.

The appearance of a new and enlarged edition of the third volume of Maclay's 'History of the United States Navy' (Appletons) synchronizes with the last hours of Admiral Sampson. The relation of this volume to the Schley court of inquiry prepares us for a review of that court's proceeding in the new part (appendix vii.). which closes with President Roosevelt's reply to Admiral Schley's appeal. Secretary Long's letter to President McKinley on the Navy Department's "persecution" of Schley will be found in appendix iii.

Dr. Francis H. Williams's authoritative work on 'The Roentgen Rays in Medicine and Surgery,' recently reviewed by us, has had a success surprising to himself and gratifying to his publishers (Macmillan). In three months the first edition was exhausted, and public demand had to be satisfied almost improvisedly, yet nearly fifty pages have been added, and give further details of apparatus and treatment.

For the second time in fifteen years, Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin revises his 'Elements of Political Economy' (American Book Co.), a text-book whose continued use is certainly matter of congratulation.

Under the editorship of Gen. J. G. Wilson, a volume has been issued by D. Appleton & Co., 'The Presidents of the United States, 1789-1902,' which will be found convenient for reference, and in several instances more than that. It consists in the main of the respective biographies prepared for 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography,' and when these are written by such authorities as John Fiske (the two Adamses, Jackson, and Tyler), James Parton (Jefferson), James C. Welling (Van Buren), John Hay (Lincoln), and Carl Schurz (Hayes), to mention no others, they evidently possess an intrinsic and literary value. Owen Wister writes especially the sketch of President Roosevelt. Gen. Wilson, in overhauling and completing the sketch of President McKinley, by the late Joseph P. Smith, had better have omitted the apology for the famous extrusion of the Ten Thousand from the classified service. And had the task been undertaken at this date, instead of last autumn or last winter, we conceive that he might have altered into conformity with the truth as now revealed the passage concerning Mc-Kinley's burking of the Queen of Spain's promise of an armistice, and would also have dropped out of sight the President's prediction at Cliff Haven in August, 1899, "Rebellion may delay, but it can never defeat, the American flag's blessed mission of liberty and humanity."

In volumes xiii. and xiv. of Professor de Sumichrast's translation of Gautier (George D. Sproul), we find the "Travels in Russia and the Low Countries" rendered with the accuracy and picturesqueness already noted in connection with prior issues of this set. Little excision has been practised; but we cannot see any reason for the omission from "The Sea-Passage" of Gautier's graphic description of nausea—a tour de force of dramatic and vivid condensation. The beautiful illustrations that accompany the volumes are all marked with a modern stamp.

An additional volume in the "Versailles Historical Series" (Hardy, Pratt & Co.) contains the life and letters of the unfortunate sister of Louis XVI., known as Madame Elisabeth. In its extreme simplicity and naturalness the style offered no serious obstacles to literal translation. The above matter is accompanied by an equally faithful version of the Duchess of Angoulême's narrative, and a more stilted rendering of Sainte-Beuve's well-known essay.

The history of political theory is necessarily vague until the period is reached when the political consciousness is manifest in communities. Prof. W. A. Dunning, in his 'History of Political Theories' (Macmillan), wisely limits his field, and, ignoring primitive communities, devotes his first chapter to Hellenic institutions. dealing first with the Hellenic peoples in general, and passing on to the political philosophy of Plato and the 'Politics' of Aristotle. While there can be nothing new in such an exposition, Professor Dunning succeeds in giving an admirably clear summary. The range from the characteristics of the Hellenic city to the political philosophy of Machiavelli, with which the book ends, is wide enough. In his 350 pages the author presents a series of interesting studies. The history of political theory has hitherto been strangely neglected, and the present volume is at any rate an excellent introduction to the subject. Not the least valuable feature of the book is the bibliography; every chapter is strengthened by a list of select references, and the whole is furnished with a good index.

The convivial frontispiece to Cuyler Reynolds's 'Banquet-Book' (Putnams) prepares one for a very different sort of 'classified collection of quotations designed for general reference, and also as an aid in the preparation of the toast list," etc., from that actually got together here. These country squires, with their long pipes and clinking glasses, are not likely to be in need of toasts like this—"Economy, the daughter of Prudence, the sister of Temperance, and the parent of Independence," or of gentle sentiments like this from Dr.

Holland—"God gives to every bird its food, but does not throw it into the nest." Mr. Reynolds supplies a glossary of popular terms, from absinthe to wineglasses, and another of popular beverages, and a sufficiency of indexes, though that of authors has no page references.

On the whole, we should prefer to take our chances with 'Mrs. Seely's Cook-Book' (Macmillan), a manual of French and American cookery, well illustrated with photographs, clearly printed, and provided with chapters on the rights and duties of domestic servants, on dinners and dinnergiving. There is a table of weights and measures, but the author's French receipts take no cognizance of the metric system.

The volume of tributes of friends to the late Prof. Herbert B. Adams just issued from the Johns Hopkins University Press contains a portrait of Dr. Adams, with a sketch of his life by Professor Ely, etc. To this is appended a bibliography, 160 pages in extent, of the university department of History, Politics, and Economics, arranged by authors.

Mr. Alexis Everett Frye, our first apostle of education to Cuba, has prepared for Ginn & Co. a 'Grammar School Geography' of the customary atlas form. We select it (among the throng) for remark because of the wholesome revolt against half-tone cuts here exhibited, and the return to woodcuts, of course using the photographic base wherever possible. These cuts are surely a pleasant relief to the eye, and they permit the reëmployment of paper not having the sight-destroying gloss needful for half-tone printing. This reaction is very significant and encouraging.

A very modern interest attaches to a solid work of erudition by Prof. Pietro Toldo of the University of Turin, 'Études sur le Théâtre Comique Français du Moyen-Age et sur le Rôle de la Nouvelle dans les Farces et dans les Comédies' (Turin: Loescher). This study is concerned with the relations between the drama and the novel in French literature from the Middle Ages to the present day. "The farce of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries is, in most cases, scarcely more than a fabliau which has been given the form of dramatic action; the procedure of those who in our own day take the subjects of their dramas from popular novels, while a more complicated process, is, after all, identical in method," This, however, is merely a suggestion of the preface, and the main body of the work is devoted to a minute comparison of the two genres as they influence each other in successive centuries. Signor Toldo's chosen field in his previous researches has been the French Renaissance, and he has done much pioneer work in establishing its relations to the Renaissance movement in Italy. The present study, which is reprinted from the 'Studj di Filologia Romanza,' was originally intended for publication in France, and this, besides the nature of its subject, accounts for the fact that it is written in French.

The State of New Hampshire is still promoting the conversion of "abandoned farms" into "summer homes," and any one concerned in this process should address himself to Mr. N. J. Bachelder, Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture, at Concord, not as a negotiator, but as the distributor (gratis) of a pamphlet list of such farms. That for the current year fills 52

pages, each farm being minutely described by its owner, and having its fixed price. A State map accompanies the list.

Prof. W. H. Pickering, in his article, "Is the Moon a Dead Planet?" in the May Century, presents in popular fashion some of the very striking results of years of observation of our satellite through the clear skies of Peru and Jamaica, where the atmosphere is so steady as to enable the use of very high magnifying powers with the telescope. The few examples of actual apparent change which he describes are the outcome of many hours of study and many nights of consecutive watching. They illustrate what may be termed the new selenography-that is, the selenography which consists, not merely in mapping cold, dead rocks and isolated craters, but in a study of the daily alterations that seem to take place in small selected regions. Herein Professor Pickering thinks he finds real, living changes that cannot be fully explained by shifting shadows or varying librations of the lunar surface. Organic life resembling vegetation he finds, though not necessarily identical with itcoming up, flourishing, and dying, just as vegetation springs and withers on the earth. Snow, too, or hoar-frost he finds much evidence of; as well as a fair degree of volcanic activity.

Polar expeditions are the predominant feature of the Geographical Journal for April. There are three articles on the British ship Discovery, descriptive of her scientific equipment and the noteworthy incidents of her voyage to the Antarctic. The means for carrying on the scientific work of the expedition are very complete, and include kites, balloons, and a xanthometer, an instrument for measuring the evervarying color of the sea. The ship touched at Trinidad Island, and a partial exploration resulted in the finding of a new species of petrel. Baron E. von Toll tells of the Russian Polar expedition under his lead, and Capt. Amundsen, a Norwegian, gives his plans for an expedition next year to the north magnetic pole, near which he proposes to pass two winters in a snow-hut. Somewhat akin to these, so far as ice and snow are concerned, is Mr. Douglas Freshfield's narrative of his explorations of the glaciers of Kangchenjunga in the eastern Himalaya, which is illustrated by some striking reproductions of photographs by V. Sella. One of these, showing the whole range, was taken from a height of 17,000 feet. A sketch of Professor Agassiz's recent cruise among the Maldives, during which he studied their physical geography and made some biological researches, contains the result of his observations upon the atolls. They "point to the uselessness of our present definition of atolis, as every possible gradation can be seen between an open, crescent-shaped bank and an absolutely closed ring of land."

—Mr. Lewis Einstein's 'The Italian Renaissance in England' (Columbia University Press; The Macmillan Co.) is a good specimen of full-bodied research. The Renaissance has been so long a name to conjure with in history, in literary scholarship, in art criticism, and in the pleasing parlor lecture, that one enters upon the reading of a new book about it with some misgivings. But whatever doubt one may feel in the present instance will speedily

be dispelled. Mr. Einstein's work justifies its existence by drawing on many manuscript sources which have hitherto been inaccessible to most scholars, and by embodying the results of much careful investigation in an admirably comprehensive study. Scholars have too often thought of the Italian influence on Elizabethan England as chiefly exerted by and in books. They have tabulated long lists of English versions of Italian authors, and they have traced the copious borrowings from the Tuscan muse which gave form and color to Elizabethan dramatic and lyric poetry. It is the merit of the present work that it presents a conspectus of the social, commercial, and literary relations of Italy and England in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, which should prove informing even to specialists in the history and literature of the Renaissance. Italian humanism was brought to England by scholars, courtiers, and travellers. To each type Mr. Einstein devotes a chapter, filling in his record with a wealth of suggestive detail. This first period of Italian influence Mr. Einstein rightly conceives to culminate early in the sixteenth century. Then began the "Italian danger," with the emergence of the Italianate Englishman, the influx of Italian merchants, and the spread of Italian political ideas. The account of this period in the Italian movement is skilfully managed, and the reaction which appeared in popular feeling and in such works as 'The Subtlety of Italians' is analyzed with a good deal of insight. The final chapter, upon the "Italian Influence in English Poetry," is not notable for original contributions to our knowledge of the subject, but it is adequate and readable. Excellent reproductions of rare portraits of some of the worthies mentioned lend an appropriate touch of human interest. There is perhaps a certain lack of conclusiveness in the book as a whole which may prevent it from serving the need of the less informed reader, but one who, already knowing something of the field, wishes at once to extend his view and to particularize his knowledge, will read it with pleasure and profit.

-Mr. Edward Clodd's 'Thomas Henry Huxley' in the "Modern English Writers" series (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is a superfluous book, and it is made so less by the Huxley 'Life and Letters' than by the admirable sketch of Huxley's life and work by Mr. P. Chalmers Mitchell, which was published simultaneously with the 'Life and Letters' two years ago. It is true that Mr. Clodd. writing after the 'Life and Letters,' has been enabled to enrich his pages with many references to that and quotations from it, but his approach to Huxley on his most serious side falls short of Mr. Chalmers's, and, while it seems hardly possible to exaggerate Huxley's controversial activity, Mr. Clodd does this in expressing his own sense of its relative importance. There is no such perversion of Huxley's temper as there was of Darwin's in Grant Allen's very disagreeable 'Charles Darwin' (1885), but there is something of the same intrusion here and there of the writer into his subject's place. This is most distinctly so in the fourth chapter, "The Controversialist," where, as nowhere else, Mr. Clodd's foot is on his native heath, and he almost forgets that he is writing of Huxley in the joy of his own battle with the

clericals and supernaturalists. It is significant that while this chapter covers sixty-six pages, the next following, "The Constructor," covers only twenty-two. The arrangement of the book is topical, and, preceding the subjects named, we have 'The Man," "The Discoverer," and "The Interpreter." Such a division of topics without confounding the substance is too difficult to be a complete success. Especially were the interpreter and controversialist one and the same to a considerable extent. But by "The Controversialist" Mr. Clodd means preëminently and almost exclusively the hero of the big fight with Gladstone. This is overworked, while the "Romanes Lecture" incident is slurred, notwithstanding its much greater importance. When we read of the "tribulation" through which Huxley entered the kingdom of intellectual freedom, and remember how Bishop Wilberforce fared in the Oxford encounter, and some others in their turn, it appears to have been Huxley who swung the thresher's flail, his enemies whose chaff was separated from their grain.

-The Marquis d'Argenson and Richard II., whom Mr. Reginald Rankin associates in the title to a volume of essays (Longmans), have obviously little to do with each other. Both, however, are fair subjects for the historian, and we need demand no further unity of motive. Each study is complete in itself, and, taken together, the two fill out a good-sized, handsomely printed book. It is not one which will sell so fast as Mr. Rankin's story of his South African experiences, 'A Subaltern's Letters to his Wife,' but the workmanship is of good quality and will do the reputation of its author no discredit. Of the two essays, "D'Argenson," though the shorter, is in our judgment the better. While Mr. Rankin's sketch of Richard II. is more notable for its agreeable style than for depth of research, his criticism of D'Argenson is both well written and scholarly. The subject is also an attractive one at the present day, for the ideas and aspirations of this French statesman appeal more to our own age than they did to the eighteenth century. Honesty and broad-mindedness were virtues which French politicians lacked in the reign of Louis XV., and which have not always been cultivated with conspicuous success by prime ministers of recent generations. These things D'Argenson had, and of late his career has recalled to many the saying of Plato that kings should have philosophers for their advisers. Alas, as Ralph Hythlodaye pointed out to Sir Thomas More, the King, though he have the philosopher at his elbow, may not listen to him. In an age of bribes and jobs, D'Argenson was incorruptible, and he foresaw one-half of the political developments of the nineteenth century; but he did not succeed in practical politics. The present tendency is to ascribe the fault more to the surroundings and less to the idealist. Nevertheless, D'Argenson had palpable limitations, to which we must not be blind. For instance, he lacked indomitable purpose, and he showed a fatuous disregard of those who might easily thwart him. His most amiable trait was the sincere humanity which can be seen in all his words and acts. Mr. Rankin hits the mark when he says: "The Marquis d'Argenson had few of the heroic virtues; his actions often con-

tradicted his professions, his words were often but a gross and disordered reflection of his true mind. But he sympathized with the sufferers of his own generation, he loved all that was great in the past, and his sympathy and his love begot in his heart the image of Freedom."

-The second edition of the German collection of copyright statutes and treaties, Gesetze über das Urheberrecht in allen Ländern nebst den darauf bezüglichen Internationalen Verträgen' (Leipzig: G. Hedeler), has had the advantage of the editorial revision of Prof. Ernst Röthlisberger, one of the secretaries of the International Copyright Bureau at Berne. The volume has been doubled in size (from 263 to 418 pages), chiefly by reason of the extended area of inclusion. With the exception of the United States, the first issue contained legislation by European countries only; whereas this new edition, besides the addition of four minor European principalities-Luxembourg, Monaco, Montenegro, and San Marino-includes seventeen Central and South American States, Hayti, Canada, Egypt, Tunis, the South African Republic, New South Wales, and Japan. The latest statute included in the former (undated) publication was the United States act of March 3, 1891, while the present work contains special copyright enactments subsequent to that year by Austria (1895), Brazil (1898), Costa Rica (1896), Germany (1901), Japan (1899), Luxembourg (1898), New Zealand (1896), Norway (1893), Salvador (1900), Sweden (1897), and Venezuela (1894). Forty-eight countries are reported on altogether, of which thirtysix have special copyright legislation now in force, dating from 1735 (Great Britain) to 1902, on the first day of January of which year the important new German law relating to copyright in literary productions and music (enacted June 11, 1901) and the complementary "Verlagsrecht" (enacted June 19, 1901) went into effect. The printing of the volume was just completed, probably, before the enactment, on March 11 last, of the important amendment to the French law of July, 1793, which extends its protection to works of sculpture and ornamental art.

-The book is divided into two parts, each arranged alphabetically by countries. The first contains the Constitutional provisions and sections of the civil and criminal codes relating to literary and artistic property, together with the decrees, ordinances, and legislative enactments now in effect regarding copyright; while the second part contains the texts of the Berne Convention (1887 and 1896), the treaty of Montevideo (1889), and such copyright treaties as are now in force between individual states. No attempt has been made at elaborate annotation, but brief, useful notations occur, and in a few cases the texts of amendatory acts are interpolated in italics. The bulletins of the United States Copyright Office have been translated entire in the case both of this country and of Canada, not only for the laws in force, but also for the official information relative to copyright registration in both countries. In lieu of the texts of the numerous copyright acts of Great Britain, a translation has been supplied, slightly compressed and with the "illustrations" omitted, of the valuable Digest of the English law of Copyright

made for the British Copyright Commission of 1878. In view of the intricacy of the legislation treated and the consequent desirability of an authoritative exponent, it was a pity to omit the name of the eminent jurist, Sir James Stephen, who was responsible for this useful work. The subsequent British acts of August 10, 1882, June 25, 1886, and July 5, 1888, have been added. The British colonies are represented only by Canada and the act of September 24, 1896, of New Zealand, no mention being made of the legislation on copyright of India, New South Wales (1879), Queensland (1887). South Australia (1878), Tasmania (1891). Victoria (1890), and West Australia (1895). This excellent work cannot supplant the admirable compilation by MM. Ch. Lyon-Caen and Paul Delalain ('Lois Françaises et Étrangères sur la Propriété Littéraire et Artistique'), which is brought down to 1896, with scholarly introductions and extended annotations in two octavo volumes and a supplement; but for the reader of German it is a handy compilation, lacking only a subject-index.

-The statement which appeared recently in the Berlin papers, that the last remnant of the city's mediæval wall not already torn down or incorporated in other structures was removed only a few weeks ago, seeme1 to imply an incredible antiquity, so modern is Berlin in every aspect. And yet this mediæval wall is said to have been built about 1230. A trifle less than a century later, its straight line was broken to permit the enlargement of the choir of the cloister church. Just back of this choir an obtuse angle was made in the wall, and here, sheltered from view behind the church, stood that fragment which has just been removed. And still the testimony of history may practically be disregarded, for that portion of Berlin which can lay claim to considerable age is so small, and has been so thoroughly changed by later building operations, that the city may be justly called For example, its population amounted in round numbers to only 20,000 at the beginning of the last decade of the seventeenth century. At the end of the reign of Frederick the Great it was but slightly over 140,000, and in 1860 had merely reached its first half-million. Since then, and especially since the close of the war with France, its growth has been enormous, so that the city with those suburbs which really form a part of it, although under different municipal government, now contains more than 2,000,000 inhabitants. Berlin is therefore as young as Chicago. In fact, in rapidity of growth and in many phases of their vigorous life and public spirit, these two cities form an interesting parallel.

MACAULAY AND HIS CRITICS.

Macaulay: A Lecture delivered at Cambridge on August 10, 1900, in connexion with the Summer Meeting of University Extension Students. By Sir Richard C. Jebb, M. P. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan.

Lord Macaulay. By H. D. Macgregor, Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

How does it happen that Macaulay, who, to judge from the extent to which his

of the English people on both sides the Atlantic, has, for the last thirty or forty years, aroused the censure, not to say the aversion, of critics who claim to represent education and culture? The time has come for attempting a reply to a question of considerable curiosity, and, to persons interested in the flow and ebb of opinion, of a certain importance. The period of indiscriminating admiration and the period (certain to follow it) of exaggerated censure have passed away. Sir Richard Jebb's exquisite and impartial apology is a sign that a master of style and a scholar of the highest culture can, while admitting the limits, also recognize the rareness and the brilliancy of Macaulay's genius. Mr. Macgregor's painstaking study of Macaulay's writings is a proof that, at Cambridge at any rate, young men just entering into life have no wish to detract from the reputation of the most popular among English historians, but desire to understand what is the permanent rank to be assigned him in the world of English letters. Under the guidance of a critic so skilful, so fair, and so subtle as the Regius Professor of Greek in the University of Cambridge, it is possible to answer with some confidence the question which we have propounded, and to show that the quarrel between Macaulay and his critics is due in the main to two causes.

First, Macaulay's tone and the very texture of his genius were antipathetic to the men who, in the main, guided the educated opinion of England during the latter part of the nineteenth century. Nor need this fact excite surprise. Macaulay, born in 1800, belonged in character to the eighteenth century. There is profound truth in the paradox to be found somewhere in the writings of Mr. Leslie Stephen, that in England the eighteenth century lasted on till 1830; and Macaulay was heart and soul the man of 1830. In this he resembled the Whigs and the Edinburgh Reviewers. In virtue, indeed, of his genius, of his youth, and of his historical enthusiasm, he saw truths and sympathized with feelings unrevealed to and unshared by Jeffrey or Sydney Smith. His onslaught on the à priori and unhistorical method of political reasoning characteristic of the Benthamites not only exhibits a dialectical power to which even Sir George Trevelyan hardly does justice, but also breaks with the intellectual tradition of the eighteenth century, and anticipates the historical view of political science; his keen appreciation of the revival of civic and even democratic life due to the rise of Christianity is foreign to the ideas of Hume and of Gibbon, and generally Macaulay's youthful article on the study of history teems with notions usually placed to the credit of later writers, such, for example, as the suggestion made with much less moderation and force by Merivale and by Mommsen, that Cicero's or Sallust's account of the Catilinian conspiracy deserved no more trust than other official proclamations or party pamphlets that tell the story of a revolutionary movement which has been condemned by failure. And though Macaulay's strength did not lie in the criticism of art or of poetry, his fervent admiration for Lessing's 'Laocoon' and for Goethe's analysis of Hamlet's character shows that Macaulay as a critic had progressed far beyond the ideas of Jeffrey works are read, has been and is the idol | and his school. But though Macaulay

shared to some extent the ideas of the coming age, he was at bottom a man of the eighteenth century; his optimism, his manly vigor, his decisive outspokenness, his admiration for material progresswhich, however, as Sir Richard Jebb well points out, was to Macaulay and to Macaulay's contemporaries chiefly valuable as the sign of moral and intellectual improvement-the very tone of satisfaction and triumph which runs through his resounding sentences, all express the very spirit of 1832, and all jar upon the taste of the writers and critics who, in one form or another, represent the reaction of the nineteenth century against the rationalism of the eighteenth.

With the reaction, in any case, Macaulay had throughout his life nothing to do. One can hardly imagine thinkers with whose tone he had less in common than Carlyle, Froude, Newman, or Matthew Arnold. These men, who are mere samples of a whole body of writers, were in many points-and these points of vital importance-as opposed to one another as it was possible for one writer to be opposed to a writer of a different school. Yet, if you look at the sentiment of the nineteenth century as a whole, you may easily perceive that they all and each of them represent a reaction, if not of opinion, yet of feeling, and a reaction in which Macaulay had no share; and the same thing is true of thinkers of a different class from those already mentioned. John Mill and Mr. John Morley no doubt have carried on from some points of view the ideas of the eighteenth century. Yet it is palpable to any one who has studied their writings that Mill and Mr. John Morley (who would not, we imagine, repudiate the name of Mr. Mill's disciple) keenly sympathize with the feeling, if not with the creeds, of the nineteenth century. The attacks, then, made upon Macaulay by later critics are from one point of view simply part of the conflict between the intellectual revolution of the eighteenth and the reactionary movement of the nineteenth century.

Secondly, Macaulay maintained a conception of the proper function of an historian which is opposed to the ideals formed by a later generation of historical writers. To Macaulay, as to the greatest historians whom the world has seen, history was primarily narration; the perfect historian was in his eyes the writer who, having obtained knowledge of past events, placed them in due order and proportion before the eyes of his readers. The object of history is, on this view, to give a true picture of the past, or, in other words, to make the men of one generation see past events as they were seen by their contemporaries. To historical inquirers, on the other hand, of to-day, the function of the historian seems to be primarily either what is called scientific-that is, the classification of details under principles and the reference of effects to causes-or else discovery: that is, the revealing of facts, whether small or great, hitherto unknown. On the one view, history is a branch, and, as Macaulay certainly deemed it. the noblest branch, of literature. On the other view, history, or rather historical inquiry, is, as far as may be, assimilated to, if not made a branch of, physical science. The two conceptions, be it noted, are not in reality antagonistic. The ideal historianif such a person should ever exist-would be at once a narrator, an analyzer, and a discoverer of the past. No one, again, will dispute-Macaulay certainly did not forget -that the basis of historical narrative must be knowledge of the past, and that the foundation of knowledge is study and investigation. Nor. may it be supposed, does the most scientific of historical investigators in reality doubt, though their practice does not always show full appreciation of this truth, that to narrate—that is, to set forth in due order and proportion the results of discovery and investigation-is no small achievement and no mean contribution to the knowledge and to the instruction of mankind. But, though this be true, it is none the less true that there is, as things now stand, practically a marked contrast or even opposition between the author who regards history as primarily narrative, and the author who regards history as primarily a branch either of science or of discovery. This difference deserves attention in itself, and certainly goes far to account for the feud between Macaulay and his critics:

Macaulay was the most effective of narrators. This, be it remarked, is a merit independent of his "style," if that word be used in a narrow sense, as meaning merely his language and mode of expression. His narrative power consisted not in a command of words, but in the capacity for grasping a large body of complicated events as a whole, and then so narrating them that every part of a complex transaction should become perfectly clear, because every fact is put in its right place. The power to do this is not given to some historians whose work is otherwise above praise. That Mr. Gardiner, for instance, might have cultivated this gift may be safely inferred from his short but admirable sketch of the Thirty Years' War; but it would be untrue to assert that he exhibits any remarkable capacity for narration in his otherwise admirable history of the Stuarts, which, especially in his later volumes, becomes more and more of an Annual Register. That Macaulay's achievement as a narrator was extraordinarily successful no one would dream of denying; the essential matter is to recognize the importance of his success. This may to a certain extent be measured by one consideration: the few volumes of his English History have made one bit of the annals of England better known to the English people than the events of their own day. True of course it is that the labor bestowed by Macaulay on narration is not balanced. as in the case of an absolutely perfect historian it would be, by the assiduous attempt to connect results with general causes. Yet to make this a serious charge against our author savors of that futile criticism which belittles one man of genius simply because he has not the special qualities of another man of equal though different genius. To complain of Macaulay because he had not the analytical subtlety of Tocqueville is hardly wiser than to attack Tocqueville's 'L'Ancien Régime' because it does not give such a picture of pre-Revolutionary France as Macaulay's History of England affords of the age of Charles II.

It may further be urged that the attempt to establish a science of history is premature. The grandiloquent generaliza-

tions of Buckle, the laws of Comte, and even the theories of Tocqueville, to many critics will seem of dubious truth. In this matter Thucydides affords us a warning. Thucydides came as near as any man could to the perfect historian; in him the capacity for historical narration is blended with and balanced by a genius for scientific analysis. He narrates, he inquires, he refers effects to causes; but though the man appeared, the hour for creating scientific history had not arrived-the attempt to do so was premature. The science of Thucydides is of less importance than his narrative. It is at least arguable that the miscellaneous information collected by the restless and unscientific curiosity of Herodotus has been of more value to the world than the historical or political theories of Thucydides.

But Macaulay, it will be said, has not discovered new facts, and the very essence of historical inquiry is discovery. It is at this point that the defenders and critics of Macaulay must in reality join issue. No doubt if it once be granted that the main function of an historian is to discover, then it will follow that Macaulay, while making every effort to ascertain the truth of the facts which he narrated, did not devote himself to what Carlyle has somewhere called "navvy-work"; but then, this admission is exactly what Macaulay and those who try to do him justice will deny. Every kind of praise is due to men whose turn of mind leads them to ascertain new facts concerning the past, even though the facts may be in themselves of no great importance; the writer, for example, who finally determines the question whether Dr. Johnson was three years or six months at Oxford: or ascertains, if it be ascertainable, who was the man who wore the iron mask; or proves conclusively that the Girondins did not, the night before their execution, partake of a good supper, has done something for the promotion of truth that is worth doing, and no sensible man ought to grudge the credit due to even the minor laborers in the field of research. But, so high is the value placed by modern critics on research which may or may not be the result of great intellectual powers, that the time has come to remind the world that the laborers who collect the materials for history are not, of necessity, themselves historians; an honest brickmaker deserves credit for the goodness of his bricks, but he has no right to claim the admiration due to an architect of genius. On the recognition of this principle is based the verdict of popular admiration which gives to Macaulay his deservedly high place among England's men of letters. To the neglect of this principle is due at least one-half of the attacks on Macaulay by men of culture and refinement who fail to perceive that, deep as is the respect due to research, the capacity for historical exposition will always be held the mark of a great historian.

OCCULT EVOLUTION.

Principles of Western Civilization. By Benjamin Kidd. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

As the Roman Republic gave place to the Empire, the vacuum caused by the disappearance of the old religion and the old habits of thought was filled with many strange and barbarous superstitions. Juvenal paints in gloomy colors the outlandish

cults and mysteries which captivated the populace and startled the serious and conservative. The gravity and decorum which characterized the old republic were succeeded by wild orgies and insane excesses, and the earlier forms of worship, which, if hollow, were stately and dignified, were abandoned for bewildering rituals devoid of all rational content. Possibly some future historian will draw a parallel between that age and our own. We have seen the Salvation Army rally to its banners large masses of the English people, and successfully invade America. It has been followed by the cult known as Christian Science, which, if it have any relation to Christianity, has certainly nothing to do with science, but which numbers its churches by hundreds and its devotees by millions. Hardly less extensive, perhaps, is the modern cult of Evolution, a word which fascinates the vast horde of the half-educated, and deludes them with the notion that they can understand the past and future development of the world with as little mental effort as they need to read the daily newspaper or the latest novel.

There seems to be no iniquity which is not now condoned or defended by some sciolist as a "phase of Evolution." makes little difference whether it be the original enslaving of the negroes or their lynching to-day; whether it be the extermination of Indians, the slaughter of Filipinos, the subjugation of Boers, the massacre of Chinese in their own land, or their exclusion from other countries-Evolution excuses everything. The categories of right and wrong have no place in this interpretation of history. Force is virtue, and success is righteousness. Men are graded as superiors and inferiors, and Evolution means that superiors may deal with inferiors as they will.

In the world of science, Evolution, of course, has an altogether different meaning; but the book before us, which is typical of its class, is not a scientific treatise. It is scientific neither in style, nor in method, nor in substance. The author has misinterpreted Quintilian's advice that the orator should create a favorable disposition towards himself among his hearers, He supposes that this result may be obtained by belittling others who have dealt with his subject, and by frequently intimating to his hearers that they are ignorant of its true meaning. No doubt the class addressed is secretly conscious of its delinquencies, and will submit to just contumely; but disparagement of rivals seldom helps those who resort to it. Nor do the showman's arts of exaggerated laudation of the wonders of his exhibition, their unparaileled novelty, and infinite superiority to anything to be seen elsewhere, carry more conviction when the subject is the futurity of the world than when it is a mermaid or a sea-serpent.

Incredible as it seems, the author of this treatise has actually fallen back into the slough from which Darwin, with infinite labor, extricated biology. We are almost ashamed to repeat that Darwin's service consisted in exploding the hoary superstition that ideas, or types, or species were entities of the same nature as tangible and visible objects. By patient accumulation of facts, he established the profound truth that living beings have their present form, not in fulfilment of specific purposes, not in

correspondence with archetypes, but because of variations which were so related to surrounding conditions as to favor the survival of the individuals possessing them. "Natural Selection, it should never be forgotten," said Darwin, "can act solely through and for the advantage of each being." It only "takes advantage of such variations as arise and are beneficial to each creature under its complex relations of life." In testing this theory Darwin spent his life. His labors were almost superhuman, his observations wonderfully extended, his inferences careful and conscientious; and it has been supposed that he had demonstrated the truth of his conclusions.

According to Mr. Kidd, such a supposition is mistaken. Darwin was altogether wrong in maintaining that natural selection acts for the advantage of existing beings; it is future beings which it favors. There is "a principle in the evolutionary process compelling ever towards the sacrifice on a vast scale of the present and the individual in the interests of the future and the universal." Final causes dominate nature: types must be realized and perfected, evolution proceed in accordance with the speculations of Plato. For propounding doctrine of this kind in the name of science Owen was savagely punished by Huxley; but Owen at least reasoned from facts. This author is more prudent; he deals with conclusions rather than premises. His method is of that extra-logical kind known as the assertatory. The theory which he propounds "must" be true.

"The winning qualities in the evolutionary process must of necessity be those qualities by which the interests of the existing individuals have been most effectively subordinated to those of the generations yet to be born. . . In the strenuous sons of time, during which progress followed its upward path, it must have been, on the whole, in the evolution of the qualities contributing to the interests of the vast majority in the future that the controlling meaning of the deeper life-processes always centred. It must have been in the interests of this majority that Natural Selection, in the long run, continuously discriminated. . . . Nay, we may go so far as to say that, under the law of Natural Selection, as we come to understand it in this light, the interests of the individual in those adjustments 'profitable to itself,' which filled so large a place in the minds of the early Darwinians, have actually no place, except in so far as they are included in, and have contributed to, this larger end in the future."

What Darwin proved was that a species becomes permanent when the individuals belonging to it are more vigorous or more favored by natural conditions than others. What this author asserts is that these more vigorous individuals must succumb before feebler ones in order to carry out his theory of "an inherent necessity in the evolutionary process." In the endeavor to impress his readers with the wisdom of this view, the author employs language of most oracular obscurity. Never before, he gravely tells us, has a principle of such reach as this of his emerged into view. It has brought on a "cosmic struggle"; "one of the most remarkable situations in his-It has a deep, a profound significance; it involves a gigantic problem; it is "the ultimate principle to which the history of philosophy is related"; all the phenomena of our social development must stand in subordinate relationship to it. Every few pages the reader is invited to be overcome with amazement at the stu-

pendous discovery, and to inspect with admiring awe the revelation of the hitherto inscrutable purposes of the Creator. It must be admitted that these verbose vaticinations have not been without effect, as at least one critic falls prostrate before their author, reverentially exclaiming: "For this is the enthralling interest of his theory—that it accounts for the very moment at which we stand to-day in the process of the world's development."

Having disposed of Darwin with a few Delphic utterances, our author makes short work of Huxley. That narrow-minded and unenlightened person belongs, like Herbert Spencer, to "the pre-Darwinian period of knowledge." Spencer's conceptions are marked by "extraordinary triviality and superficiality," and Sidgwick was little more profound. As to John Mill, his theories belong "simply to the literature of a pre-scientific epoch when men possessed as yet no real insight into the character of the natural forces at work'in the evolution of society." His principle implied that all sense of responsibility was divorced from the incidents and results of competition, or the struggle for gain. The ascendency of the interests of the present, with total disregard of the future of mankind. characterized Mill's philosophy. He was absolutely unconscious of the profound difference between the State and Society considered as a living organism, "undergoing, under the influence of Natural Selection, a vast process of slow development in which all the interests of the existing individuals are lost sight of in wider issues." "As the evolutionist . . . rises from the study of Mill's writings, the superficiality of the whole system of ideas represented profoundly impresses his mind."

To students of Mill's writings who are not evolutionists of this school, these statements will seem slanders too ridiculous to deserve refutation. If there ever was a philosopher profoundly interested in the future welfare of mankind, in the uplifting of those classes on whom present conditions bear hardest, it was Mill; and in his chapter on the "Stationary State," which causes our author to become quite inarticulate with superior wisdom, he points out that in that state society would contain a well-paid and affluent body of laborers, and few enormously rich men; that there would be "a much larger body of persons than at present, not only exempt from the coarser toils, but with sufficient leisure, both physical and mental, from mechanical details, to cultivate freely the graces of life."

After all, has "Western civilization" anything better than this to promise? It has, indeed, to judge from this book, extremely little to promise that is intelligible. The author is really compelled at last to offer some definite explanation of what he has called a movement of stupendous significance. But it is a parturition of ridiculous outcome. He mumbles something to the effect that Henry George's theories about confiscating the "unearned increment" must be applied, and that the industries of the people must be carried on by the officers of Government; and this is what we get from all these pages of oracular declamation. It has been cleverly said of Henry George's theory of land tenure that he defended it on the ground that every people had some time tried it and given it up; and certainly collectivism has hitherto made but a dismal showing for itself. As we contemplate this result we feel like exclaiming, in the author's words: "There rises in the mind an overmastering conviction of the extraordinary incompleteness and insufficiency of all the conceptions of the science of society we have been here considering."

As to that "majestic process of cosmic ethics" which consists in "the projection of the controlling meaning of the world process beyond the present," we are satisfied, after much study, that it amounts to that regard for the future which we call prudence and parental devotion, and that respect for the rights of our fellow-creatures which gives its name to justice. We need hardly say that many previous writers have observed the existence of these virtuous tendencies, nor contend that they have not been peculiar to Western civilization in the past and will not be in the future. It is not improbable that the class of readers to which this writer appeals perceive that they possess these virtues in some degree, and experience a pleasurable elation at being assured that they are thereby participating "in the evolutionary process which must, sooner or later, subordinate the present and all its interests to the interests of a future which is infinite." Whether they are wiser than they were before they learned this, is another question.

Roman Africa: An Outline of the Roman Occupation of North Africa. Based chiefly upon inscriptions and monumental remains in that country. By Alexander Graham, F.S.A., F.R.I.B.A. With thirty reproductions of original drawings by the author, and two maps. Longmans, Green & Co. 1902.

No country in the world, not even the interior of Asia Minor, presents so striking a contrast between past prosperity and present desolation as does that part of the North African coastland which we now call Tunisia and Eastern Algeria. Under the Carthaginians and again under the Roman Emperors, it was studded with thriving cities, and was so rich and so well cultivated as not only to support a large population, but to export vast quantities of grain to Italy. No province produced a greater number of men of letters in heathen times, of theologians and energetic ecclesiastics in Christian times. None was covered with a larger number of costly and splendid public works. Eighty years ago no region in the Mediterranean basin was so barbarous, so thinly peopled, so waste and miserable as this ancient home of culture. And even now, when France has held Algeria for some seventy years, and Tunisia for twenty, the country, although beginning to be opened up by railways and rendered perfectly safe for travellers, remains backward and in most districts very scantily inhabited. It is recovering very slowly from the results of twelve centuries of Muslim

This is the region whose Roman remains Mr. Graham describes in the volume that lies before us. He entitles it a 'History of Roman Africa,' but it is really rather a series of archæological studies than a narrative history. The author seems to be an architect by profession, and has journeyed a good deal through Tunisia (his book entitled 'Travels in Tunisia' was pub-

lished in 1887). He is a good observer and an agreeable writer. But he is not strong as a Latin scholar, and not stronger as an historian. There are many small historical errors scattered through the book, and expressions are used which betray an insufficient knowledge of Roman history. No one, for instance, who had mastered that history would write such a sentence as this (p. 25): "The establishment of the principles of monarchy, dating from the time when Cæsar and Pompey acted in unison to overthrow the aristocratic constitution of Rome, became permanent after Cæsar's decisive victory at Thapsus." No trained historian would, in speaking of Carthage, fail to refer to Aristotle's remarks on its Constitution, would omit an account of the Donatist schism (the Donatist quarrels are barely referred to), would say scarcely a word about the Vandal conquest of Africa, and give only a few lines to its reconquest by Belisarius. The book is, in fact-and this is why it is necessary to make these criticisms-not a history of Roman Africa, but an account of the inscriptions and monuments which commemorate the Roman Emperors who reigned over North Africa from Augustus to Honorius. As such it has its value. The inscriptions have been well selected from the very large number discovered and transcribed in recent years, especially by the diligence of French scholars. The drawings not only are carefully executed, but show the skill and knowledge of the trained architect.

The arrangement of the book is chronological, not topographical. Each city in which Roman remains have been found is taken in the order of the succession of the Emperors to which its inscriptions relate, or in whose time its chief surviving monuments were erected. Thus, Theveste (now Tebessa), an inland city to the west of Kêrwan, is taken in connection with the Emperor Vespasian, because its earliest inscriptions date from his time, although it became far more prosperous and important at the end of the second century A. D. Its neighbor Thamugas (now Timegad) is noticed under the reign of Trajan, because that Emperor caused a city to be erected there, where previously only a fortified frontier post had existed. Thysdrus (now El Djem), famous for its magnificent amphitheatre, is described under the reign of Gordian III., as Lambæsis, the great frontier camp city, had been under that of Marcus Aurelius. Though there are some conveniences in this plan, we think that, on the whole, a topographical arrangement would have answered just as well, for the inscriptions and ruins do not come sufficiently into the general annals of the time to make it necessary to place a description of them at the point where they first emerge into the broad daylight of history.

The accounts given of the ruins which our author deals with are full of interest, and throw a great deal of light on the conditions of what was doubtless one of the most populous and prosperous of all the western provinces of the empire. The four cities we have named above, Theveste, Thamugas, Lambæsis, and Thysdrus, besides other once flourishing towns, such as Sufes and Sufetula, all lie in a strip of country about 250 miles long, from Thysdrus on the east to Lambæsis on the west. They are far in the interior to the south

and southwest of Tunis. All this region is now almost desolate: that is to say, though poor villages are scattered here and there through it, it is nearly all uncultivated, and inhabited chiefly by nomadic or semi-nomadic tribes little removed from barbarism. It must have been, however, as the existing remains show, both well cultivated and well peopled; much of its wealth, at least in the eastern part, consisting in the wide-stretching plantations of olives, from which vast quantities of oil were exported to Europe. The best witness to its wealth is to be found in the amphitheatre of Thysdrus, a structure about as large as the amphitheatres of Verona, and somewhat larger than those of Pola and Arles. It is inferior only to the great Flavian amphitheatre at Rome, which we call the Coliseum. It is one of the most superb Roman works in existence. It covers four and a half acres of ground, and could seat more than thirty thousand persons. Mr. Graham thinks that it was built by Gordian the Third, in honor of his grandfather Gordian I., who was a native of the place, and doubts whether it was ever completed. But, completed or not, it must have been meant to serve a very large population. To-day, Thysdrus is represented by a wretched group of hovels called El Djem, and there are not 10,000 people within a radius of twenty miles from this majestic ruin, which was used as a fortress against the Arab invaders under Sidi Okba in the seventh century A. D., and had onefourth its circumference destroyed by cannon used against rebel tribes, who had taken shelter in it in 1697

Mr. Graham's account of the ruined cities does not purport to be exhaustive. He says little about the mosaic pavements, a species of decoration in which North Africa is peculiarly rich. He tells us less than we should expect about Carthage, where, to be sure, the ruins are scanty, and barely mentions the interesting Roman remains at Uthena (now Oudena), fifteen miles south of Tunis. He confines himself almost entirely to Tunisia and eastern Algeria. But of the principal ruins in that very interesting region, the most civilized part of Roman Africa, he gives an account sufficient to enable his readers to realize the part it played in the ancient world. And he dwells with proper fulness and emphasis upon the reigns of Trajan, Hadrian, Marcus Aurelius, and Septimius Severus (this last Emperor himself an African) as brilliant epochs in North African history. Perusing his pages, one wonders when and by what race prosperity will be restored to these naturally rich regions. At present there is hardly any colonization, for the French, though they have secured order, made railroads, and done much in the way of archæological research, have not yet tempted settlers from any of the industrious races of southern Europe, nor induced the half-civilized natives to reclaim the long-abandoned fields, or to restore to any considerable extent the ruined irrigation works on which cultivation so largely depended in Carthaginian and Roman days.

Old Diaries: 1881-1901. By Lord Renald Gower. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1902.

Horace Walpole's letters, especially those addressed to Mann, were really diaries, and one is sometimes reminded of Walpole in

reading these diaries of Lord Gower. Lest we mislead the reader, it should be said at once that the resemblance is due to certain qualities which are usually classed as defects, and that Lord Gower's diaries are vastly inferior in every respect to those of Walpole. The frontispiece shows him to be possessed of an aristocratic but effeminate face, and there is a lack of virility in his views of life which is even more striking than in those of his celebrated predecessor. He shares Walpole's fondness for the nobility, and takes too obvious a pride in his connection with ducal families and in his possession of thirty-two quarterings. But here the resemblance ends. It is true that both writers deal with persons rather than things, but Walpole took a keen interest in political matters, and constantly referred to the events of the day and their effects on men's minds. Lord Gower, on the other hand, confines himself to records of travel. of the hotels he lived in, and of the people he met. He has nothing to say of politics, nothing about questions of finance or sport. nothing about social problems or many other things that interest most men. is true, he takes a dilettante interest in art, and his skill in sculpture may be seen in the Shakspere monument at Stratford; but an invitation to dinner with the Queen at Windsor or with the Dowager Empress of Germany at Homburg was the source of his greatest happiness and his most genuine inspiration. His style is exceedingly slipshod. He writes of "Count Stolberg whom Herbert Bismarck told me is the owner," etc., and of "John Symonds whom I had heard was ill," etc. He constantly refers to houses as livable, and confuses exceptionable and exceptional. He has lived much in France and Italy, yet his quotations in French and Italian are generally incorrect. It may be that a gentleman with thirty-two quarterings is apt to become reckless in matters of style, but to the ordinary reader such blunders are annoying.

Having pointed out the inherent weaknesses of the book, it is only fair to show by a few extracts that it is not devoid of interest. Many readers will agree with Gray's words, "I love the people that leave some traces of their journey behind them"; and, though it does not fall to the lot of every diarist to provide material for the historian as Walpole and Arthur Young did, nevertheless such chronicles can scarcely fail to be of some value.

In 1884 Lord Gower was in Boston and called on Oliver Wendell Holmes, who told him that "Americans had not cared for Carlyle's denunciation of the North in the civil war more than one does for a dog that yelps after a carriage." In 1885 he met Dr. Schliemann, who said that he had not had time these last eighteen years to keep himself au courant of anything but Homer and Troy. Here is a description of Nile scenery:

"I was up early, and saw the moon, still brilliant, giving way majestically to the rising sun. In front of my cabin rose a noble row of palms, the river flowing by in front; these trees stood out red against the rising sun, which paled the moonlist sky. On the right a lantern on our dahabeah threw out a bright track of light across the water; thus there were three lights all combined—a difficult subject for a painter to attempt."

And here is an account of Renan:

"He is one of the uncouthest and uncanniest-looking of mortals—all head and belly, no legs to speak of—a general look of a half-frog, half-human being. He is most amiable and courteous in manner, but he has a tiresome way of apparently agreeing with whatever is said."

Lord Gower once asked Millais whether he should call him "Sir John" or, as Lady Millais did, "Sir Everett." He answered: "Well, you see, my dear fellow, my wife married John Ruskin before she did me, and that makes her dislike the name of John." Gladstone, in speaking to Lord Gower about different royalties, said that all the Georges except George III. were scoundrels, and that no royalty he had ever met had such charm and tact as the then Prince of Wales. On another occasion Gladstone referred to meeting Macaulay in Rome in 1837. Macaulay spoke of taking a daily walk in St. Peter's, and on Gladstone asking him what most attracted him in that place, he replied, "The temperature." Lord Gower wrote to the Duke of Norfolk for some information about the Tower of London, and the Duke replied: "It is a subject in connection with which our family have often lost their heads so completely that you can hardly expect me to give any very clear information."

In his preface, Lord Gower claims that nothing in his book will be found to be "set down in malice," and this claim seems to be justified.

Mary Boyle, Her Book. Edited by Sir Courtenay Boyle. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1902.

The death, in 1890, of Mary Boyle, one of the famous Boy'es of the family of the Earls of Cork and Orrery, threw half of London society into slight mourning, and caused a faint ripple on the surface of London literary life. "Few have paid more visits to the country houses of the upper classes," said a writer in the Academy, with more accuracy than good taste. Mr. Theodore Watts-Dunton, on the other hand, who wrote her obituary notice in the Athenœum, dwelt on Miss Boyle's friendships with literary men, and assumed that these intimacies, rather than her own achievements in literature, or her social position, had made her "almost prominent." It is the fate of certain persons who possess great social charm and sympathetic manners to be appreciated solely for themselves during life, and after death to shine if they shine at al!, by a reflected light. If Mary Boyle had not written a spasmodic journal in a naïve and entertaining style, she would now be buried fathoms deep in the indices of the biographies of her brilliant friends. She was the familiar friend of Dickens; but who would gather the fact from the two slight references to "Miss B." in the index of Forster's 'Life'? Landor admired her, and said of her, with more enthusiasm than judgment, "Mary is more than clever; she is profound"; but one does not think of Mary Boyle as one of Landor's set. Tennyson, whose son married her niece, addressed a poem to her in 1888, which is printed in the introduction to the present volume. The last stanza contained a prophecy soon to be fulfilled for both:

"The silver year should cease to mourn and sigh— Not long to wait— So close are we, dear Mary, you and I, To that dim gate."

We do not remember that this poem, entitled "Spring Flowers," is mentioned in

Lord Tennyson's 'Life,' where but slight notice is taken of Mary Boyle. She was a frequent and welcome visitor at Casa Guidi, and was intimate with the Carlyles. In fact, there were few English literary men of distinction with whom, in the course of her long life of eighty years, she was not on more or less friendly terms. Charles Lever knew her in Italy, and of him she tells a story that should have pleased Mr. Bret Harte:

"On the table lay a volume of Bret Harte's parodies of popular nove.ists, and I, volunteering to read a passage aloud, asked if he could recognize the authorship. It was the narrative of a cavalry officer who, in the heat of an engagement, took a flying but unwilling leap over a horseman in a dark cloak, cocked hat, and white feathers. As far as I can remember the words—"My horse cleared the obstacle well; I lifted my eyes, and found myself for the first time in the presence of Field-Marshal the Duke of Wellington!" Never shall I forget Lever's burst of laughter, which seemed to flood the whole room with sunshine. "Upon me soul, I believe it's meself; it's uncommonly like me."" (P. 214.)

Mr. Watts-Dunton speaks of Miss Boyle's charm as indescribable and perhaps unique. Witty all allowed her to be; we quote from the introduction an instance of a ready repartee:

"It was at Ashbridge that, some years before the present Bishop of Ely [Lord Alwynne Compton] put on lawn, there flashed forth one of those keen answers with which she often delighted her hearers. They were discussing some important point of High Church—Low Church—Moderate Church. As luncheon was announced, a prudent critic of the discussion said: 'Well, after all, it is very true that ria media securum iter.' 'You don't know what that means, Mary?' Oh, yes, I do! That is what Lord Alwynne says: "Caution is the way to secure a mitre." '"

Mary Boyle's fame was not strong enough for exportation; so delicate a vintage was for home consumption, and probably few people in America are familiar with her name. Her journal is worth reading for the pleasant if superficial impression of many interesting people, men of affairs, actors, poets, and novelists. The Boyle family is connected with the best blood in England, and in the country houses which she calls her "extra homes" Mary Boyle spent much of her time. Thus we get glimpses of life at "Burghley House by Stamford Town," Bowood, and Longleat. Her poetical drama, "The Bridai of Melcha"; her poem, "My Father's at the Helm" (once greatly in vogue); her novels, written under the influence of Scott and G. P. R. James; her art criticism, have not survived to the present day. She lays little stress on that side of her activities, and is singularly free from the vanity of minor writers.

The volume is attractively got up, and has some pleasing illustrations.

Nathan Hale, 1776: Biography and Memorials. By Henry Phelps Johnston. New York: Privately printed. 1902.

Nathan Hale was hung as a self-confessed spy, when in his twenty-second year. In his short life few incidents above the ordinary are to be found, and the materials bearing upon his early years are naturally slight and much disjointed. He was of good New England stock, and his training was of the usual quality of his time. His entrance into Yale College, his service as

a teacher until the Revolution called him into the field, and his ready response to the call of patriotism-such are the known incidents of his life. A shadowy romance is traced, and his friendships aid us to form some idea of his thoughts and ambitions. Yet a youth who had passed his life in a quiet Connecticut town in colonial times must have been immature, and whatever expansion of character came to him was due to a sound training and his experience in camp. In the latter place he met men from other colonies, and notably from the southward, whose habits were very different from his own. The school-teacher, with halfformed ideals, developed rapidly until he was ripe for martyrdom; and when the final test came, he is found fully equipped for meeting it with a simple dignity that proved his worth.

Professor Johnston has made the most of his material, and has carefully garnered every reference to Hale or the regiment in which he served. Step by step his movements are traced from the camp near Boston to New York, in the spring of 1776, and the most trivial facts have been skilfully used to round out the story. Naturally, where so little of Hale's own writing remains, great dependence is had on the scattered chance references to him and on the general conditions of army and people at this time. The background of the picture is so carefully filled in as sometimes to detract from the prominence intended for the young hero. With the military operations of the campaign of 1776 Mr. Johnston is familiar, having made a special study of them. He will not admit that Washington made a tactical blunder in placing so large a force on Long Island, where escape was difficult and the chances of defeat almost certain. He believes, however, that the result was a "disaster," and that is only the truth, as the day cost Washington upwards of eleven hundred men. In the battle Hale had no part, but it was because of the defeat and uncertainties following it that Hale found his mission and death. What connection Washington had with his journey into the British camp is uncertain, and it is hardly possible that it was immediate. The details of the "secret service" were held by others, and not even to the members of Washington's own military family were the names of the agents known. Further. the machinery of this intelligence system could hardly have been perfected at the time of Hale's venture. The position of Tory and Whig in New York was not determined, and the subsequent long years of internecine strife in Westchester County and New Jersey proved how evenly balanced the two factions remained. A suggestion from headquarters and a performance by Knowlton would be sufficient, and we cannot but think that Mr. Johnston errs in seeking to give Washington a prominent share in the undertaking of Hale's journey. Heath and Clinton seem to have been in charge of the spies.

The known facts of Hale's life are so few that the imagination is drawn upon for material. Exploits, such as the capture of a provision sloop under the Asia's guns, are assigned to him, with just sufficient probability to make it difficult to disprove them. Calmness and judgment in time of danger are assumed to belong to him, and, in the light of the final tragedy, rare qualities of temper and operations of mind are

conferred upon him. He is made to look upon what is passing around him not in a natural and even casual way, but with the intensity of an impending disaster. The story is told sympathetically, and with a detail that proves the industry of the writer. The entries from the British orderlybooks and from the logs of the British vessels near New York enable Mr. Johnston to correct the current story of Hale's capture, and this may be considered the most important contribution made to history by the present volume. Hale's diary while in service is given in full, and the many admirable illustrations and the beauty of print make the volume a worthy tribute to the memory of the man.

Robespierre: A Study. By Hilaire Belloc, B.A. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1901.

Beside Mr. Belloc's volume on Danton may now be placed a study of Robespierre which is conceived in much the same spirit and executed in much the same style. The spirit is that of reverence for the Revolution; the style is that of one who is endeavoring to reconcile poetry with prose, and the demands of historical accuracy with an aspiration to interpret the hidden truths of character and motive. Here are deep problems, or rather they would seem such did not Mr. Belloc attack them so lightheartedly. Whatever the shortcomings of this book may be deemed to be by those who admire the National Convention less than Mr. Belloc does, it is instinct with energy. However closely it may seem to identify original power with the love of strange words and unusual phrases, we cannot truly say that the author, in his search for picturesqueness, has merely discovered mannerisms. Striking language will be found in every chapter and on every page. Whether or not it gives pleasure must depend largely upon individual taste. Those who like a copious and fervid diction may be greatly impressed-those who do not may be inclined to close the book at the end of the preface. For ourselves, we have found that Mr. Belloc's strain, as it rushes on from paragraph to paragraph at a sustained pitch of declamation, is somewhat exhausting, but we would not deny him for a moment the merits of good scholarship, ingenuity, and rhetorical skill. Though good taste may be at times overshadowed by assertiveness, this volume pays homage to an idea which now if ever we need to emphasize—the idea, namely, that if historical research is a science, historical composition is an art.

For the average man the name of Robespierre connotes the Terror, and particularly the Great Terror. But here Mr. Belloc intervenes to distinguish between creating and using. "It is a grave historical error to confuse Robespierre with the Terrorindeed, it is an error no longer committed save by historians whose ignorance of the French language and of recent research preserves them in a traditional net." In our opinion the test point is Robespierre's responsibility for the law of 22 Prairial An II., which "deprived the accused of defenders, dispensed with witnesses, and substituted moral for material proofs [Aulard]." Concerning the fact of his connection with this measure there can be no dispute. He drafted it himself, although Couthon was the agent who presented it. What happened during those ghastly forty-nine days, when 1,376 victims were hurried to the guillotine, is, in one sense, but too well known; yet as to Robespierre's direct part in the carnage some misapprehension still exists. During the last weeks of his life he seldom attended the meetings of the Committee, and no list save that of 2 Thermidor bears his name. Mr. Belloc's hypothesis is, that in the early summer of 1794 he wished to stop the Terror and come forward as the saviour of France. In support of this view, which he admits is not capable of definite proof, the author appeals to some words of Barère: "Robespierre perished because he would have stopped the great career of the Revolu-It seems a risk to lay much stress upon one of Barère's phrases, but Mr. Belloc's point is that the Committee, before waiting to be destroyed, anticipated Robespierre and used the power which was given it in a way he did not approve. Where he had thought himself the master, he found Carnot, Barère, and Prieur, with different aims and considerable determination, in control of the machine. He quarrelled with them and he fell.

Mr. Belloc bases his book chiefly upon the material which was collected by Ernest Hamel, but he does not go nearly so far as Hamel did in vindication of Robespierre. We quote one passage which shows this, and which also shows Mr. Belloc's style when it is not quite at its best;

"The hopeless oneness of structure that is for living things a negation of life, the single outlook and exiguous homogeneity of his mind, made him in the first troubling hopes of the Revolution a shaft or guide, in its dangers and betrayals, an anchor, in its high last and vain attempt to outstrip our human boundaries, a symbol, and in its ebb of return to common living a tedium and a menace. For when men of human complexity reposed at last in victory, and had leisure to balance things again, he was seen to have neither instructive human foreknowledge nor the sad human laughter, and there was no exile in his eyes."

It would be a capital omission in giving an account of this book to neglect Mr. Belloc's personality. Where the writer keeps himself in the background, the reviewer has no excuse for dragging him upon the stage. but where, as in the present case, a large number of confidences are frankly offered, there can be no reason why one should not take notice of the fact. In a word, Mr. Belloc shows signs of possessing a certain quality which he shares with Cicero, Rousseau, and Charles Sumner. He is neither reticent about expressing his own sentiments nor weakened by any distrust in the value of his own judgments. Thus, a good deal of his eloquence suggests the college debating society, while the marks of youthfulness may be seen from the first sentence, in which he sits "alone at evening before a fire of logs in a room near the Rue St. Honoré." to the last in which he refers to himself as one who hopes for better things. Were Mr. Belloc devoid of talent, it would not be worth while to notice a fault of manner which threatens to become serious. We only criticise this aspect of the book because we have a sincere belief that, if the author is willing to use a little more repression, he can write considerably better than he has done as yet. Of course, every man must develop his own style, and no one should demand that individuality be unduly

checked; but, in this instance, the danger does not lie on the side of self-effacement.

This is not an ordinary biography, but an interpretation of character, which, as respects the treatment of literature and history, follows canons of its own. If in some ways it is marred by affectation, it cannot be termed commonplace, and from time to time it reaches the pitch of eloquence which it so constantly strives to attain.

The Georgian Period: Being Measured Drawings of Colonial Work. By Frank E. Wallis, C. Bertram French, E. P. Morrill, E. Eldon Deane, Theo. H. Skinner, C. M. Bill, and others. Part IX. American Architect & Building News Co. 1902.

In repeated notices in these columns the great excellence of this collection has been pointed out. Sometimes the number is devoted to large plates, mainly copies of line drawings; sometimes it is rather to photographs of the existing house or church that its space is given up; sometimes there is a sheet or two of text with inserted illustrations. The number before us partakes of all of these characteristics. Mr. Paul Waterhouse, an English architect, contributes an article, which is illustrated with photographs by W. Galsworthy Davie-a well-known compiler of important architectural books. The title of it is "The Relation of Georgian Architecture to Carpentry"; and the half-tone prints, nineteen in number, of European origin, though some of the American examples invade the English writer's text, is followed by what appears to be an editorial note on Seventeenth Century Houses, and that by an article on Dutch and German eighteenth-century work, all apparently in America. There is also an article by Theodore H. Skinner on the University of Virginia, and one by James Eastus Price on the Cape Fear district of North Carolina. The illustrations in these papers are partly half-tone prints and partly reproductions of drawings. After we have turned over the five sheets of printed matter (folio size, let it be remembered), we come to the plates, these again partly pictorial views taken by the camera from nature, but in this instance much more frequently reproductions of line drawings made with the T-square and triangle in the orthodox architectural way. Those rigidly drawn details are pretty sure to be accurate-at least it is a point of honor among persons who make relevés of this kind to give the exact curve and the right number of flutes or of billets, and so these drawings at least do not belie the character of the original. So much is not to be said of the drawing of the very interesting front door and steps of the Cowles house at Farmington, for here that which is in reality a smooth and smug piece of neoclassic work, with well-levelled and wellpointed brickwork and glossy, white-painted wooden door, columns, entablature, festoons, and fanlight-all as neat as the tool could make it-is turned by the draughtsman's art into something very picturesque indeed, like a fourteenth-century front door in Normandy. Nothing but praise, however, can be given to the drawing of the church tower in Plate 19. There, in despite of the temptations to a false picturesqueness, the hard, square-edged, boxy look of the original tower is preserved, and there can be no higher praise than that when we

are considering, not landscape art, but the facts of existing architecture.

A small prospectus laid within the cover states that there will be only three parts more of the work. The price of publication is not clearly given in this prospectus; but that is indifferent, as information can be obtained by writing to the American Architect & Building News Co.

What Is Christianity? Lectures delivered in the University of Berlin during the Winter Term, 1899-1900, by Adolf Harnack. Translated into English by Thomas Bailey Saunders. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

In his preface to the English edition of this important work, Professor Harnack says that theologians "only half discharge their duties if they think it enough to treat of the gospel in the recondite language of learning, and bury it in scholarly folios." But not all who can use the recondite language can, at the same time, express themselves in such a simple and straightforward manner as does Professor Harnack in these lectures. Many who have followed him through the laborious dulness of his 'History of Dogma,' will wonder at the ease and freshness of his present form. They will wonder more when they read in Mr. Saunders's preface that these lectures were delivered extemporaneously. An enthusiastic hearer took them down in shorthand and presented Professor Harnack with a complete report of what he had said. A few corrections were sufficient to bring the lectures into their present shape. Harnack is not a prophet without honor in his own country. It gives some idea of his vogue that these lectures were attended by 600 students from all departments of the Berlin University.

Perhaps their most interesting aspect is the comment they afford on the pious flurry. which, not long ago, was occasioned by Professor Harnack's critical estimate of the chronology of the New Testament books. The more conservative hailed that estimate as reactionary to a remarkable degree, and those who knew least of the details of the criticism were most vociferous in their delight that the learned professor had become as one of them. In fact, the criticism was reactionary only as related to such an extreme throwing forward of New Testament dates as that of F. C. Baur; it remained farther from the traditional standpoints than the radical criticism of Renan, notably with reference to the Fourth Gospel, which Professor Harnack cannot assign to the Apostle John. But what was most significant in the jubilation over Professor Harnack's "reaction" was the inference from his earlier dates that everything in the New Testament must be taken at its face value, with the effect of a complete endorsement of the traditional theology. To read these lectures is to become aware how far any one entertaining such ideas reckoned without his host. For Professor Harnack the New Testament literature is a distorted shadow of things actually said and done-not an exact report of them-while his construction of the nature and character of Jesus is far less conservative than the older Unitarianism in America, or than the English

garded as an eminent representative of the Ritschlian school, there is little here to identify him with it beyond his frank distaste for an elaborate Christology. To the doctrine of Christ's double nature he has a particular aversion. After a preliminary chapter, the next following discusses the sources of information and certain prominent aspects of the history. We read of the Fourth Gospel that it "does not emanate or profess to emanate from the Apostle John," and, though "not altogether devoid of a real, if scarcely recognizable traditional element, it can hardly make any claim to be an authority for Jesus's history." Strauss's mythical theory is rejected in set terms, while at the same time immense concessions are made to it. All the birth-stories are frankly brushed aside, and the accounts of miracles are reduced to "the sifted sediment of a residuum." Cures may have been effected by the spiritual force of Jesus, but nearly all the miracle stories arose from misconceptions of one kind or another. Of the traditional evidential miracle-a violation of natural law -no shred is suffered to remain. At the same time, it is contended that the Synoptic Gospels give us a clear account of Jesus's teachings, of "his life's issue in his vocation," and of the impression which he made on his disciples and which they transmitted. Good reasons are given for denying to Jesus any sympathetic relations with the Essenes. Those for the absence of any Greek influence are less satisfactory, and seem to suffer something like contravention from Professor Harnack himself.

The message of Jesus is declared to be one of great simplicity-that the kingdom of God was coming; the infinite value of the human soul; the higher righteousness, and the commandment of love. It is conceded that, over against the kingdom of God, Jesus saw a kingdom of the devil, sharing this idea with his contemporaries. There is something very naïve and pathetic in Professor Harnack's plea for a kindly judgment of this mistaken view. He is quite sure that our modern opinions have their husk as well as kernel, and that we too shall require kindly judgment of our posterity. Surely this is about as far from the identification of Jesus with the infinite God as a genial scholarship can go.

In a succession of interesting chapters we have the teachings of Jesus considered in their relations to asceticism; to the social question, especially as affecting the poor; to questions of law and order; to civilization in general: to Christology: and to matters of doctrine and creed. In several of these chapters, were Tolstov never mentioned, we should know that Professor Harnack had him vividly in mind. But he refers to him frequently, and it is mainly against him that he endeavors to free Jesus from the implications of asceticism, a drastic view of property, and opposition to all legal requirements and the use of force. Clearly upon this ground Professor Harnack does not fight as one who beats the air. Among his six hundred students, doubtless there were many Tolstoïans, socialists, anarchists. One cannot but admire the deftness of his exegesis, while unable to agree with him that the teachings of Jesus are perfectly evident. Where it requires so delicate an instrument as Professor Harnack's exegesis to separate Christ's apparent While Prof. Harnack is commonly re- teachings from the real, it is not strange

that so many have gone quite astray. The general contention is that Christ's concern was entirely with the individual, and that we have no right to go to him for answers to specific social questions or for particular political programmes.

Coming to Christological matters, the simple humanity of Jesus is set forth in terms of unmistakable lucidity: "This feeling, praying, working, struggling, and suffering individual is a man who, in the face of his God, associates himself with other men." "The gospel as Jesus proclaimed it has to do with the Father only, and not with the Son." There is a lack of clearness at one point: we are told that Jesus did not claim to be the Son of God, and elsewhere we are told in what sense he made this claim (pp. 138, 156). The view of his Messiahship is opposed to Wellhausen's, which Martineau adopted, viz., that Jesus did not think of himself as the Messiah. Professor Harnack's view appears to us much more credible than the view to which it is opposed. Of the teaching that to appropriate the gospel a man "must learn to think rightly about Christ." he says, "That is putting the cart before the horse."

The most central interest of a chapter on the Apostolic Age pertains to the resurrection of Jesus. We are assured that faith in immortality is independent of "a foundation unstable and always exposed to fresh doubts." We cannot be so much as certain that Paul knew the story of the empty grave. Paul has a chapter to himself. It denies with equal confidence that Paul founded Christianity and that he corrupted it. He continued it in the spirit of its founder; but his metaphysical treatment of Jesus was the source of many ills. Of these we hear much in the chapters on Greek and Roman Christianity. Especially in the former, Professor Harnack's foot is on his native heath, he has so carefully, in his 'History of Dogma,' elaborated the development of the Catholic Church through its struggle with Gnosticism. The part played by theological fictions in this development is not concealed, nor does Professor Harnack refrain from the damnable heresy that the chief of these was the identification of the Logos with Jesus with which the Fourth Gospel sets out. The indictment of Greek and Roman Christianity is very stern. Both are pronounced foreign to the gospel, which they only accidentally preserve. It is conceivable that a Greek or Roman Christian would have written these chapters differently; the one on Protestantism, also-though Professor Harnack puts his finger, there, on many ailing spots.

Chine Ancienne et Nouvelle. Par G. Weulersse. Paris: Armand Colin.

The author of this lively work, who has a good French style, enjoys a travelling fellowship of the University of Paris. He gives here his reflections and impressions of the oldest nation, that may yet be the youngest in the list of the world's surprises. At Hong Kong he was struck with the extreme originality of a modern city which includes two great civilizations. Oriental and Occidental, and was mightily impressed with the grandeur of England in the Easther unnumbered ships and the wonders

which she has accomplished in sixty years. At Kowlun he noted the enormous number of "go-downs"-those stone storehouses so characteristic in countries where fire makes such ravages. He gives a long description of Canton, takes us to Shanghai and Wu-sung; and with his own keen eyes we seem to see everything, new and old. In the Yangtse valley at Hankow and Nanking he is deeply impressed with the immense commercial future for this river region, which excels all others in China. He was unable to get to Tientsin or Peking, on account of the Boxer uprising and the Boxer-like attack of the "Christian nations" on the Taku forts.

All his descriptions are bright and informing. By far the most interesting to readers of the present day are the studies (in Part ii.) which he has made of the economic situation. He faces the supposed Chinese peril by acknowledging the great natural resources and the industry of the people, but points out the defects as well as the qualities of the Chinese workman. The inferiority of the production in China as compared to the richness of the natural resources seems to him almost incredible, despite the evidence immediately before him. While the political administration remains hopelessly corrupt, there is little danger to the West from the menace of an economical invasion. The phantom of the yellow peril will be nothing but a phantom so long as the Chinese people are in the grip of the mandarins. Nevertheless, the steady invasion of Western ideas in China is destroying the power of the literati, and none know it better than these devotees of a hoary system. Discussing education and the teaching of the missionaries, especially of the Jesuits, whose colleges he visited, M. Weulersse notes also the modern official Chinese curriculum, especially at the College of Nan-yang, which was established in 1898, during the hundred days' reform. In the English or American schools the English language is taught from infancy, so that correct pronunciation and idioms are mastered. There is a French school at Shanghai, and it remains for the French to develop it for the profit of France and China.

With unsparing frankness the author, in examining the commercial situation, shows why the exports from France are so much less than from other countries. The articles are too dear, the exporter too timid, and the means of transportation inferior. At home the Frenchmen imagine that because what they get from China is luxuries, the Chinese must therefore be rich; whereas, taken altogether, they are very poor. The Americans and Germans know the reality, and understand the Chinese and their customs better. The only line of French steamers is the Messageries Maritimes, and these are in a state of decay. On the Yangtse River alone, while the English have several great lines, the Japanese one, and the Germans two, the French have none. Our author pleads for more energy and intelligence in his countrymen, if commercial success is to be won. Amid the preponderance of English, Japanese, and Russians, French influence is wofully lacking because of a certain want of cohesion among the French themselves. They are not vividly interested. They do not seek to pene-

trate the problem of country or people, but exercise a sort of "moral absenteeism." France in China is deprived of the organs necessary to action and resistance. A college for French youth, a business college for commercial apprentices, and a strong French newspaper are crying needs. In the chapter on diplomacy, it is shown that the diplomatic servants of France are badly paid. In the eyes of the Chinese the French have "lost face," and count no more as a naval power. In spite of all criticism, France need not despair of commercial expansion in this, one of the finest fields. M. Weulersse would have the unproductive north of China left alone. Concentration of influence and commerce should be made in the region of the Yangtse valley. With a French colony in Indo-China, and a base of operations, there should be for the French permanent interest and rights in China.

Treating of the moral interests of the Chinese Empire, M. Weulersse pays a high tribute to the Jesuits, who have organized the meteorological service of China, while the most recent studies of the hydrology of the Yangtse are by them. Yet he doubts their success spiritually. His analysis of the causes of the Boxer uprising shows subtle discrimination of the strength and weakness, both of the Catholics and the Protestants; the former with their immovable doctrines, and the latter with their more supple teachings. Yet he declares that the onset was against foreigners rather than Christians. The deepest cause of chronic disturbance is the interpenetration of Western civilization in every form with Orientalism; in a word, the eternal conflict between the Orient and the Occident. Incidentally, he shows how the preoccupation of a great Power like England with a handful of farmers in South Africa gave the Boxers their immediate encouragement to strike.

Altogether this is a bright and timely book.

The Memoirs of François René, Vicomte de Chateaubriand. Translated by Alexander Texeira de Mattos. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1902.

This translation of the famous 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe' could hardly have found a more favorable moment for its appearance. During the last few years, French critics of royalist or ultramontane leanings (notably M. Brunetière, among the latter) have attempted, with some success, a sort of Chateaubriand revival. To the majority of English readers his name suggests rather tales of the last of Moorish chivalry or the idealized redskin than the series of early nineteenth-century scenes and portraits of which, in French literature, the only rivals are to be found in the pages of Saint-Simon. It is possibly the sense of the difficulties involved in the rendering of a highly individual style that has hitherto kept off the incompetent, thus leaving to Mr. Texeira de Mattos the opportunity for an English version which, in spite of the translator's uncompromisingly foreign name, is almost entirely free from blemish. We have not for many years come across a translation of any important work from French into English showing an equally delicate grasp of word-equivalences joined with the comprehension of the idiomatic demands of the language into which the work is to be rendered.

In proof of this, the reader may safely turn to such memorable passages as the account of Chateaubriand's boyish reveries (i., 85), the author's wanderings among the North American Indians (i., 217), the love episode at Beccles (ii., 86), or the execution of the Duc d'Enghien (ii., 256). Gallicized sentences, such as the following, are rare: Whether it be that the language has made progress, or that it has gone backward. or that we have advanced in civilizationor retreated towards barbarism, it is certain that I find something threadbare, antiquated, grizzled, cold, and lifeless in the authors who were the delight of my youth" (i., 133). We have consequently no hesitation in pointing out a few manifest slips. Madame de Caud (ii., 314) writes to her friend: "Les Blossac m'ont confié dans le plus grand secret une romance de toi." The italicized word is not commonly translated as novels (ii., 314). Again, we cannot recognize precipitously (iv., 161) as a suitable equivalent for "Les portes des loges s'ouvrirent précipitamment."

The four handsome volumes already issued are sufficient to stimulate our looking forward to the forthcoming two which are to complete the series. It is the fascinating record of a life varied beyond the lot of most men, and, in spite of its many errors and its all-devouring egotism, animated by a loftiness of ideal principle which remains associated with the memory of the best of the old noblesse.

The Sectional Struggle: An Account of the Troubles between the North and the South, from the earliest times to the close of the Civil War. First Period, ending with the Compromise of 1833. Part concerning the early Tariffs and Nullification. By Cicero W. Harris. Philadelphia: Lippincott. 1902. Pp. 343.

Mr. Harris's volume seems to be a fragment of a considerably larger work whose publication in full is, for reasons somewhat obscurely hinted at in the preface, temporarily delayed. The plan apparently contemplates an elaborate history of the United States in all the relations in which the sectional issue between the North and the South has been in any way raised. The present instalment, whose scope is in part indicated by its title, is a minutely detailed study of the debates in Congress on the subject of the early tariffs and nullification; indeed, the matter consists almost wholly of virtual abstracts of the "Annals of Congress" and "Register of Debates" for the period covered. As such, the book has value, but it offers the material for history rather than history itself, and is hardly interesting reading. Even as historical material, too, Mr. Harris's work is incomplete. The important subject of the course of public opinion in the States regarding the tariff is hardly more than referred to, while the effects of tariff legislation on the opinions of members of Congress is inadequately pointed out. As to the growth of nullification sentiment in South Carolina, Mr. Harris adds little, save in the field of Congressional discussion, to what was known before, or which Professor Houston has not more clearly set forth in his 'Critical Study.

In other words, 'The Sectional Struggle,'

though showing great industry and evincing a good temper, is, so far as the present instalment goes, uncritical and of limited usefulness. It lacks a discriminating summing up of results and an explanation of the bearing of debate on political action. It is to be hoped that Mr. Harris's later volumes may supply this lack.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aikins, H. A. The Principles of Logic. H. Holt & Co. \$1.50. Ballagh, J. C. A History of Slavery in Virginia. Baltimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. \$1.50. Alkins, H. A. The Principles of Logic. H. Holt & Co. \$1.50.

Ballagh, J. C. A History of Slavery in Virginia. Ballimore: The Johns Hopkins Press. \$1.50.

Ballin, Mrs. Ada S. From Cradle to School. E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.

Barton, G. A. The Routs of Christian Teaching as Found in the Old Testament. Philadelphia: The John C. Winston Co.

Bridgman, Clare. The Bairn's Coronation Book. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York; E. P. Dutton & Co. 60c.

Bullen, F. T. Deep-Sea Plunderings. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.

Contentio Veritatis: Essays in Constructive Theology by Six Oxford Tutors. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50.

Corbin, John. An American at Oxford. Houghton, Millin & Co. \$1.50.

Crane, Walter. Line and Form. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. \$2.25.

Davidson, L. C. The Confessions of a Matchmaking Mother. J. F. Taylor & Co. \$1.50.

Dickinson, Edward. Music in the History of the Western Church. Scribners. \$2.50.

Duff, Archibald. The Theology and Ethics of the Hebrews. Scribners. \$1.25.

Emerson, W. G. Buell Hampton. Boston: Forbes & Co. \$1.50.

Fillis, James. Breaking and Riding. (Translated by M. H. Hayes.) Scribners. \$5.

Forsyth, A. R. Theory of Differential Equations, Part III.; Ordinary Linear Equations. London: C. J. Clay & Sons; New York: Macmillan. \$3.75.

Gordon, Samuel. Strangers at the Gate. Philadelphis: The Jewish Publication Society of America, Harding, J. W. The Gate of the Klas. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. \$1.50.

Isham, A. H. It Is It. Humane Publishers, \$1.50.

Jacobs, W. W. At Sunwich Port. Scribners, \$1.50.

Jessup. Alexander. The Best of Balzac. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.25.

Keedy, E. E. The Naturalness of Christian Life. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.25.

Kelsey, W. R. Physical Determinations. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co.

Laut, A. C. Heralds of Empire. D. Appleton & Co.

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Mackensie, James. The Study of the Pulse and the Movements of the Heart. Edinburgh: Young J. Pentland; New York: Macmillan. \$4.50.

Maclay, E. S. A History of the United States Navy from 1775 to 1902. Vol. III. New ed. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.35.

Miller, Mary B. The Brook Book. Doubleday, Page & Co. \$1.35.

Moody, W. V., and Lovett, R. M. A History of English Literature. Scribners. \$1.25.

O'Donnell, F. H. The Ruin of Education in Ireland, and the Irish Fanar. London: David Nutt. Soi. South Leaflets, Vol. V. Boston: Directors of the Old South Work. Emerson, W. G. Buell Hampton. Boston: Forbes & Co., \$1.50.

Old South Leaflets, Vol. V. Boston: Directors of the Old South Work.
Oudin, M. A. Standard Polyphase Apparatus and Systems. New ed. London: Sampson Low, Marston & O.; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. \$3.
Paston, George, Little Memoirs of the Nineteenth Century, London: Grant Richards; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.
Peters, J. P. Labor and Capital. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Rainsford, W. S. The Reasonableness of Faith. Doubledsy, Page & Co. \$1.25.
Ramsey, M. M. A. Spanish Grammar, with Exercises. H. Holt & Co. \$1.50.
Sedgwick, Anne D. The Dull Miss Archinard. Century Co. \$1.50.
Sedgwick, Anne D. The Rescue. Century Co. \$1.50.
Sedgwick, Anne D. The Confounding of Camelia. Century Co. \$1.25.
The Heart of the Empire. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.25.
Toynbee, Paget. Dante Studies and Researches. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.50.
Triggs, H. I. Formal Gardens in England and Scotiand, Part II. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners.
Van Winkle, Daniel. Old Bergen. Jersey City: John W. Harrison. Vidari, Giovanni. Elementi di Etica. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli. 3 lire.
Villari, Pasquale. The Barbarian Invasions of Italy. 2 vols. (Translated by Linda Villari.) Scribners. \$7.50.
Vincent, E. L. Margaret Bowlby. Boston: Lothrop Pub. Co. \$1.50.
Walker, H. de R. The West Indies and the Empire. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$3.
Watson, Forbes. Flowers and Gardens. John Lane. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.

Watson, Forbes.
Lane.
Wheeler, Harriet. Cub's Career. Abbey Press. \$1.
White, Elizabeth M. Mon Oncle et mon Curé, by
Jean de la Brête. American Book Co. 50 cents.
Williams, T. R. Shall We Understand the Bible?
New ed. London: Adam & Charles Black; New
York: Macmillan. 50 cents.
Williams, F. H. The Roentgen Rays in Medicine
and Surgery. 2d ed. Macmillan. \$6.
Wise, S. & The Improvement of the Moral Qualities. (Columbia University Press (Macmillan).
The Columbia University Press (Macmillan).
Wood, Walter. With the Flag at Sea. E. P.
Dutton & Co. \$1.50.

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